

**MEASURING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
THROUGH ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY, ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND ORGANIZATIONAL
EMPLOYER BRANDING**

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to investigate the structural relationships between organizational identity (OI), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), organizational employer branding (OEB) and organizational commitment (OC) among Malaysian hotel employees. The aim is to identify the perception of employees concerning the OI, OCB, OEB and OC that they have perceived at their workplace. This study also assesses the mediating effect that OCB have through OI on OEB. Systematic sampling was used in this research. The data have been collected through sets of questionnaire answered by 624 respondents who are hotel employees in Malaysia. The result of this study reveals that OI, OCB, OEB and OC are perceived as valid constructs. Findings also show that there are relationship between OI and OCB, between OI and OEB, between OI, OCB and OEB, OEB and OC, and the relationship between OI, OCB, OEB and OC is confirmed through Structural Equation Modeling. Respondents perceive that the more they possess OI, OCB and OEB, the more they are committed to their job. These findings are important to the organizations to develop programs through employer branding that could retain the employees working with them. Limitations and future research directions are also discussed.

Keywords: organizational identity (OI), organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), organizational employer branding (OEB), organizational commitment (OC), Malaysian hotel employees, Structural Equation Modeling.

ABSTRAK

Objektif utama kajian ini adalah untuk menyiasat hubungan antara struktur identiti organisasi (OI), tingkah laku kewarganegaraan organisasi (OCB), penjenamaan majikan organisasi (OEB) dan komitmen organisasi (OC) di kalangan pekerja-pekerja hotel di Malaysia. Tujuannya adalah untuk mengenalpasti persepsi pekerja berkenaan OI, OCB, OEB dan OC yang telah mereka alami di tempat kerja. Kajian ini juga menilai kesan pengantara yang dialami OCB melalui OI pada OEB. Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah pensampelan sistematik. Data telah dikumpul melalui set borang soal selidik yang dijawab oleh 624 responden yang mana mereka merupakan kakitangan hotel di Malaysia. Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa OI, OCB, OEB dan OC dilihat sebagai konstruk yang sah. Hasil kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa terdapat hubungan antara OI dan OCB, antara OI dan OEB, antara OI, OCB dan OEB, OEB dan OC, dan hubungan antara OI, OCB, OEB dan OC disahkan melalui pemodelan persamaan berstruktur. Responden menganggap bahawa lebih banyak mereka mempunyai OI, OCB dan OEB, lebih banyak mereka komited kepada tugas mereka. Hasil kajian ini penting bagi organisasi untuk merangka program melalui penjenamaan majikan yang mana dapat mengekalkan pekerja berkerja dengan mereka. Had dan halatuju kajian akan datang juga dibincangkan.

Katakunci: identiti organisasi (OI), tingkah laku kewarganegaraan organisasi (OCB), penjenamaan majikan organisasi (OEB), komitmen organisasi, pekerja hotel di Malaysia, Pemodelan Persamaan Struktur.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

This chapter starts by puts forward the background of the study that includes research problems, objectives, theoretical underpinning, the scope and the contribution of the study. Finally, it displays the structure of the remaining chapters of the report.

1.1 Research Background

Employees are one of the most important assets of the organizations. The importance of investing in their employees is being recognized now more than ever before by the organizations. Organizations are starting to realize that to stay on top and to be at the competitive advantage, they need to emphasize on developing and retaining their employees.

International Labor Organization (2003) warns that shortage of skilled employees and a low worker commitment are the most frequently cited problems facing by the hospitality industry by both the trade itself and by industry practitioners. Malaysian Minister of Human Resources, YB Datuk S. Subramaniam admits that local employees only hold the job for two to three weeks in the service sector such as hospitality, tourism and foodservice (Utusan Malaysia Online, 2008). Malaysian hospitality sector business and operation expansion are affected due to the shortage of employees (Utusan Malaysia Online, 2009). Annual surveys by Malaysian Employers Federation (2004)

report reveal that the annual labor turnover rates in Malaysia for 2003 and 2004 were high, approximately 17 percent and 16 percent respectively.

Consequently, it seems hard for managers to retain the high talented employees because they have lot of choices offered by other organizations with variety of incentives (Gillingham, 2008). Interests of managers in the hospitality industry often involve high annual turnover rates, ranging from 50%-250% and decreased availability of employees (Woods & Macaulay, 1989; Sneed, 1988; Schuster, 1999). Main (1998) agrees that it is generally accepted that employee retention and turnover are the biggest problems facing hospitality operators. For a hospitality manager, it is becoming harder to find good employees and even harder to keep them on the job. Quail and Williams (1999) agree that labor shortages were plaguing hospitality even when the industry employed more than 10 million people. The industry is directing its attention toward decreasing current turnover levels by recruiting and training more effectively, as well as hiring from less traditional labor pools (Quail & Williams, 1999).

The hospitality industry in general keeps on having one of the highest turnover rates across industries because of wages, shift schedules and social perceptions of entry-level jobs (Hurst, 1997). Hurst finds that as turnover rates increase, labor costs rise. Turnover rates also can influence employee training costs, customers' perceptions of service quality and employee job satisfaction. Howard (1997) advises that managers and companies to meet the basic needs of employees by paying closer attention to job characteristics and providing incentives, motivation and quality of life programs that could help decrease the turnover rate and increase job productivity. Kuean, Kaur and Wong (2010) view that turnover can give negative impact to the organization whether the employee leaving the organization voluntary or involuntary. Moreover, the fifth

largest barrier for an efficient productivity that has been cited by 20% managers in the world is high rate of staff turnover (Proudfoot Consulting, 2008). The difficulties in the process of hiring and maintaining employees are mainly due to some unique aspects of managing in the hospitality and tourism sector. As reported by Burke, Koyuncu and Fiksenbaum (2008), the aspects which contribute to high turnover rate, may include: labor intensiveness, weak internal labor markets, 24/7-52 weeks a year operation, low status and gender composition especially female employees and a low level of professional prestige. Moreover, Tuzun (2009) agrees that shaping the perceptions of employees about their organization is crucial for understanding what mechanisms lead to employees' attitudes and behaviors toward their job. Hence, organizations need to strategize its employee's retention activities in order to minimize the employee turnover.

One of the strategies is through employer branding. On the word of Ambler and Barrow (1996), employer branding is the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment and identified by the employing company. The employer brand philosophy is generally concerned with the building a distinctive image in the minds of recruits and existing employees that a company, above all others, is a "great place to work" (Ewing, Pitt, de Bussy, & Berthorn, 2002). A young and developing theory, employer brand has more recently been purported to also provide a new framework for the business of Human Resources (HR). Employer brand is about "deciding what kind of employer a company needs to be" and "provides a consistent framework for management to simplify and focus priorities, increase productivity and improve recruitment, retention and commitment (The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 2003). Hence, employer brand has tremendous power to serve as a platform for defining culture and designing talent strategies to increase performance.

Ritson (2002) suggests that companies with strong employer branding can potentially reduce the cost of talent acquisition, improve employee relations, increase employee retention and even offer lower salaries for comparable staff. Practitioner authors agree that long-term corporate success and an organization's prosperity depends on how well the firm is able to target, manage and develop talented people (Cheese, Thomas, & Craig, 2008). Most companies understand the fundamental importance of engaging employee commitment in delivering customer satisfaction and loyalty. Employees especially those in customer-facing roles project a positive corporate image, which enables their organization to succeed. In this way, employer branding also support an organization's ability to deliver a consistent customer brand experience. Moreover, Ambler and Barrow (1996) posit that organizations with strong workplace reputations have an easier time attracting, developing and retaining quality people, leading to increased performance and sustained success.

Backhaus and Tikoo (2004) assert that despite the growing status of the employer branding practice, academic research on the topic is restricted to a few articles in the marketing literature. Ambler and Barrow (1996) make a case for the usefulness of employer branding and found that branding has relevance within the context of employment. Employer branding is very useful in an increasingly knowledge-based economy where skilled employees are often in short supply (Ewing et al., 2002).

1.2 Research Problems

Despite the increasing development and interest in developing employer branding program (Conference Board, 2001), few empirical investigations have been done in this area. As noted earlier, the popularity of employer branding among practitioners and the

lack of academic research on the topic raises interesting questions for management and marketing scholars.

Based on the above observations, this study aims to examine whether Organizational Employer Branding (hereinafter OEB) contributes to Organizational Commitment (hereinafter OC) by attempting to identify the dimensions of Organizational Identity (hereinafter OI) and Organizational Citizenship Behavior Citizenship (hereinafter OCB) that are associated with OEB. Comparatively, it is also important to look on the issue whether different dimensions of OI may influence the dimensions of OCB. Consistent with this discussion, this study attempts to answer the following questions.

1.2.1 Research Questions

The following are the eleven key research questions this study attempts to answer:

Research Question 1: What constitutes the Organizational Identity (OI) dimensions perceived by the employees in Malaysian hotel industry?

Research Question 2: What constitutes the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Citizenship (OCB) dimensions perceived by the employees in Malaysian hotel industry?

Research Question 3: What constitutes the Organizational Employer Branding (OEB) dimensions perceived by the employees in Malaysian hotel industry?

Research Question 4: What constitutes the Organizational Commitment (OC) dimensions perceived by the employees in Malaysian hotel industry?

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between OI and OCB?

Research Question 6: What is the relationship between OI and OEB?

Research Question 7: What is the relationship between OCB and OEB?

Research Question 8: What is the relationship between OEB and OC?

Research Question 9: What are the relationships between OI, OCB and OEB?

Research Question 10: Does OCB mediate the relationship between OI and OEB?

Research Question 11: What are the relationships between OI, OCB, OEB and OC?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main research objective of this study is to investigate the determinants of OEB and the consequence of OEB to OC. This study also analyses the relationship between different dimensions of OI and OCB. Moreover, the study addresses the role of OEB as the mediator between OI and OCB as well as the mediated effect of OCB between OI and OEB. More specifically, this study aims:

- i. To identify the dimensions of OI perceived among the employees in Malaysian hotel industry.
- ii. To identify the dimensions of OCB perceived among the employees in Malaysian hotel industry.
- iii. To identify the dimensions of OEB perceived among the employees in Malaysian hotel industry.
- iv. To identify the dimensions of OC perceived among the employees in Malaysian hotel industry.
- v. To examine the relationship between the OI and OCB.
- vi. To examine the relationship between the OI and OEB.
- vii. To examine the relationship between the OCB and OEB.

- viii. To examine the relationship between OEB and OC.
- ix. To examine the relationship between OI and OCB with OEB.
- x. To examine the mediating effect of OCB in the relationship between OI and OEB.
- xi. To propose an integrated model linking OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

1.4 Theoretical Underpinnings

Theories employed to develop the framework of this study are derived from resource-based view (hereinafter RBV), competitive advantage, brand equity and psychological contract areas. The concept of internal marketing is also employed.

Employer branding is practiced and forecast on the assumption that human capital will bring value to the firm and also through skillful human capital investment, a firm's performance can be further enhanced. This is supported by the RBV which suggests that characteristics of a firm's resources can add on to sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). Furthermore, human capital has shown to operate as an important resource that creates a competitive advantage (Priem & Butler, 2001).

The RBV is the business management tool that is used to determine the strategic resources available in a company. The principle development of RBV had taken place between 1984 and in the middle of 1990 (Kraaijenbrink, Spender & Groem, 2010). In the preliminary explanation of strategic management, literature states that the RBV of the organization has repeatedly being studied by the researchers or scholars as a framework in a way to explain the condition of a firm ability to sustain the competitive advantage (Barney, 1986, 1991, 2001; Conner, 1991; Peteraf, 1993; Wernerfelt, 1984). Barney (1991) defines the resources as "all assets, capabilities, organizational

processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, that controlled the organization that enables any particular organization to visualize and thus apply those strategies or resources that can increase the level of a firm's efficiency and effectiveness" (p. 101). He also suggested that firms which own such resources that are valuable, rare, and also not easy to be imitated or to be replaced with are in a situation to achieve sustainable competitive advantages (Barney, 1986; 1991).

Moreover, the resources are also looked as a package of tangible and intangibles assets, such as a firm's management skills, the organizational progression and routines, and also any information and knowledge that are gathered and controlled by the firm (Barney, Wright, & Ketchen, 2001). In the studies by Godfrey and Hill (1995) and Michalisin, Smith and Kline (1997), they state that the scholars of RBV have viewed that the strategic asset (SA) is naturally intangible. They have indicated that there are three factors of strategic assets represented by the intangible resources and not in the physical form. The first factor is sustainable features of the resource based advantage which only happens due to the legal protection afforded by the intangible resources. The second factor is intangible resources, like creativity, knowledge and insight from the employees helps in moving forward the physical technology and tends to establish the organizational ability to serve the changing needs of customers'. The last factor of strategic assets is represented by the intangible resources that are not easy and costly to be imitated by the competitors. In Armstrong and Shimizu's (2007) research, they indicate that RBV had enlightened and predicted the relationship between the resources of the firm which act as independent variables and sustainable competitive advantage that is influenced by performance-related outcome that acts as a dependent variable for their theoretical framework. While in Boyd, Gove and Hitt's (2005) study, they specify that the determinant that perceived quality to a competitive advantage is supported in a logical sense by the RBV and those factors are reflected by the firm's market

prominence. Therefore, they recommend in their study that RBV has given an explanation on how reputation and market prominence can affect performance (Dowling, 2001; Roberts & Dowling, 2002).

Moreover, several researchers have indicated that RBV can be applied in order to conceptualize the linkage between reputation and performance (Robert & Dowling, 2002). Even Boyd, Gove and Hitt (2005) propose in their research to test the RBV conception of the reputation-performance relationship and extend the research done by Rindova, Williamson, Petkova and Server (2005) about the concepts. In relation to Barney's (1991) and Dowling's (2001) study, they define the reputation as "an firm's feature and depicted as broad, multidimensional of single construct whose value is determined through the interactions and internal relation among several attributes, either inside part or outside part of the organization". Some of the values of the resource are established by the relationship of some conditions like organizational strategy and external environment (Priem & Butler, 2001).

Further, Enz (2008) states that competitive advantage does not come from only 'a' resource, even though they give advantage to the firm. In fact several valuable, rare, inimitable and no substitutable resources (Barney, 1991) have to be assembled in a way to establish the firm's capabilities. While several researchers also believe that competitive advantage cannot be gathered only from a single specific knowledge, but derived from the combination of dissimilar knowledge elements (Davenport, Prusak & Wilson, 2003; Leonard-Barton, 1995; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Nonaka, 1998; Pfeffer, 1998a). Back in 1991, Barney did not substitute to anything else in order to perform the sustainable competitive advantage. Enz's (2008) study indicates that organization may achieve a competitive advantage by possessing superior resources in the following five categories: the first category is financial resources which include all

monetary resources that are available, second is physical resources which include land, building, equipment and any access to raw materials, third is human resource which pertains to the skills, background, and managers or employee training and also the way how they are organized, fourth is organizational knowledge and learning and last is general organizational resources (Barney & Arikan 2001; Barney, 1991; Barney, 1997; Harrison, Hitt & Hoskisson, 1991; Mahoney & Pandian, 1992; Wernerfelt, 1995). By ensuring that the company is responsible for any changing market environment that maintains and develops the existence of resources and capabilities or creating a new one, competitive advantage might be sustained (Yolles, 2009).

In 2005, Furlong has indicated that competitive advantage is always related with the core competencies of the firm. Espedal (2005), in his study states that a set of core employees in the organization who have valuable and unique capabilities or skills are the main source of competitive advantage. From this point, management can be determined as the core competence. Leonard-Barton (1995) specifically illustrates four dimensions of core capabilities. First is knowledge and skills, followed by the physical and technical systems. The third is managerial systems of education and development and last is the values and norms of the organization. Both four dimensions are viewed as determining what kinds of knowledge and knowledge-building activities are encouraged. Leonard-Barton's (1995) study also views management as the core competence and also gives her opinion that management and management development practice might be a competitive advantage.

Yolles (2009) states that "core competencies are those capabilities that important to the firm in a way to achieve competitive advantage, specifically based on tacit knowledge. Furlong (2005) in his research signifies two factors that may influence the ability of firm in a way to achieve sustainable competitive advantage which are structure and

configuration and organizational culture. Those factors are significantly linked to corporate paradigms and politics (Furlong, 2005). Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan and Buyruk (2010) state that many authors have explained the way that employees may influence the competitive advantage and also performance of the organization.

Based on Lado and Wilson's view (1994), assets or the human capital, which are affected by management policies, practices, systems, capabilities, and also organizational culture and climate in a direct way contribute to the process of sustaining the competitive advantage. In addition, this can be done through facilitating the development of competencies, where firms specifically create a complex relationship that is implanted in an organization's history and culture and also develops tacit organizational knowledge. Consequently, if the firms are able to determine their area and knowledge, this may lead to competition and that rare knowledge can be applied profitably in the marketplace, the firms are able to represent and sustain their competitive advantage.

Formerly, the concept of tacit knowledge is generated by Polanyi (1962) who indicates that tacit knowledge is intangible, cannot be expressed, cannot be codified and structured, and in a sense of knowing how to handle everything through experience, hard to distinguish and manage, related with understanding and also cannot be transmitted. Therefore, this shows that tacit knowledge is in contrast with explicit knowledge that is expressed, codified and able to be transmitted among individuals but is not necessarily understandable. Another research by Yolles (2009) determines that there are three types of capital inputs. They are physical, human and also organizational while the environment of the company internally determines the function of these resources. Thus with appropriate resources, competitive advantage and sustainable

superior performance can surely be achieved (with a high level of investment returns) (p. 65).

In addition, Neal, West and Patterson (2005) postulate that human capital signifies assets that can provide a source of sustained competitive advantage based on its characteristic of inimitability and non-substitution. They also add that many firms apply human resources practices and systems to achieve this capital. This is also supported in a previous research by Schuler and Jackson (1987) which state that effectiveness of human resource practice is dependent on the strategy that an organization may use to achieve a competitive advantage in the business scene. Many researchers use various terms to signify this system including; “high commitment” HRM system (Pfeffer, 1994), “high performance” HRM system (Huselid, 1995), or “human-capital-enhancing” HRM system. Human resource management has been defined by Mathis and Jackson (2000) as “the set of formal system in any firm that applies in a way to ensure the effective and efficient use of human talent in order to keep organizational goals accomplished according to the plan” (p. 4). Storey (1995) shares in his literature that those employees who have a high commitment to the firm, are highly capable, empowered, stay involved in the firm’s business and are well motivated, will likely see a source of sustained competitive advantage and will maintain the success of the firm’s business.

Then, Nickson, Warhurst and Dutton (2005) state that aesthetic labor is believed to develop a distinct image and also provide a competitive advantage in the hospitality industry. In addition, they define aesthetic labor as the workers’ abilities and attributes to be presentable and to converse appropriately with the correct etiquette when they begin employment (Warhurst & Nickson, 2007). Consequently, O’Reilly and Pfeffer (2000) and Pfeffer (1998b) mentions that in the airline industry, the internal marketing

practices by the Southwest Airlines that comprise of staff who are satisfied, happy, well-motivated and productive are likely to contribute to excellent customer service and be at a competitive advantage. In addition, it will also contribute to organizational performance in terms of profits, market share, safety records and cost reduction.

Timo (1999), in his research discovers two labor utilization strategies in the Australian hotel industry which are influenced by managerial practices, organizational changes and also changes in the product market. The first strategy is through the cost minimization approach. This approach uses the flexible and segmental labor market which enables the hotel management to reduce costs and give them more advantages in room fees as compared to their competitors. The cost reduction strategy can be applied by using the flexible seasonal workers, part time or on call employees, students and volunteers as the workforce (Graham & Lennon, 2002; Jago & Deery, 2002). This is also supported by Cully, Woodland, O'Reilly and Dix(1999), and Wood and De Menezes (1998) who indicate that taking employees by outsourcing and using the temporary workers will contribute to a higher organizational profitability. The second strategy is by applying the quality enhancement approach. Quality enhancement approach has been defined by Timo (1999) as “a model of employment relations and competitive advantage performance by more stable, higher skill level and well-motivated employees” (Timo, 1999, p. 63). Pfeffer (1988), in his book state that workers may form the only real resource for competitive advantage. Furthermore, Bacon (2001) in his study reviews the book of Pfeffer (1998) and Ulrich (1998) and mentioned that human resource is viewed as an important factor that contributes to maintain the firm's competitive advantage. This is supported by previous research by Schuler and Jackson (1987) who posit that the effectiveness of human resource practice is dependent on the strategy that an organization may use to achieve a competitive advantage in the business scene. Lastly, it must be ensured that, any interdependent

resources should not be abandoned in a way to develop sustainable competitive advantage and to achieve a successful business.

Subsequently, the concept of internal marketing is also used in this research. The concept in internal marketing is to treat employees as an in-house target group of the organization, to take into account that the customer and the supplier are in the organization (Berry, 1984; George, 1977; Grönroos, 1981; Kotler, 1972; Sasser & Arbeit, 1976). Bruhn (1999) defines internal marketing as the systematic optimization of internal processes using the marketing and personnel management to execute marketing as an internal attitude through instantaneous customer and employee orientation, so that the market-oriented corporate goals can be achieved more competently. Bruhn (1999) and Stauss (1995) suggest that there are three characteristic aspects in this approach namely; internal marketing is associated with the systematic planning and decision-making processes, customer orientation and employee orientation. These aspects can be achieved simultaneously, and thus, internal marketing is seen as a way of thinking. Subsequently, a wide range of different internal marketing goals have been identified in the literature, from the primary goal of customer satisfaction to that of employee satisfaction (Lings, 1999). On the other hand, Johnson (1986) claims that internal marketing is firstly adopted by service industries to allow employees to have a clear understanding about their organizational mission, goals and vision so that the employees can offer their best. Also, through the employees' education, training, encouragement and performance appraisal, it is possible to reach organizational expectations. However, it is not possible for service industries to improve the service quality simply through conventional methods, it actually requires the first line service givers to play a determinant role in improving customer satisfaction by means of direct touch interaction (Kang, James, & Alexandris, 2002).

Simultaneously, the theory of brand equity is also employed in this study. Consistent with a study by Capon, Berthon, Hulbert and Pitt (2001), there are two approaches of brand equity which are organizational brand equity and customer brand equity. Furthermore, in service brand marketing, it is a moderately new occurrence to evaluate brand equity based on customer's cognitive aspects rather than the firms' financial values (Berry, 2000; Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995; Kim, Kim, & An, 2003; Mackay, 2001). Simon and Sullivan (1993) indicate that the focal point of organizational brand equity is based on financial values for example; market value, potential earning and replacement cost. Instead, the customer brand equity is more focused on the customer's mindset like awareness, perceived quality, attitudes, preferences, attachment and loyalty (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Agarwal & Rao, 1996; Blackston, 1995; Dyson, Farr, & Hollis, 1996; Keller, 1993; Lassar, Mittal, & Sharma, 1995; Vasquez, Del Rio, & Iglesias, 2002; Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000).

As indicated by Aaker (1991), the assets of brand equity can be grouped into five dimensions which are; brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, brand loyalty and other proprietary assets. Other proprietary brand assets are also included with patents, trademarks and channel relationship (Kim, Jin-Sun, & Kim, 2008). On the contrary, Yoo and Donthu (2001) argue in their research that other "proprietary brand asset" which is the fifth component of customer brand equity is not really related to customer perception, thus there are only four of the dimensions; brand awareness, brand association (or brand image), perceived quality, brand loyalty are regarded as customer-based brand equity. This is also tested on the recent study done by Hyun and Kim (2011) which confirm that, the four dimensions of brand equity; brand awareness, brand association (or brand image), perceived quality and brand loyalty are interrelated for restaurants branding.

On the other hand, Keller (2003) defines brand equity as diversity in customer reaction to the activity of marketing. He also come up with different brand equity models that identify six components; brand salience, brand performance, brand imagery, brand feeling, brand judgments and brand relationship (Keller, 2003). As maintained by Young and Rubicam's brand asset valuator, they conceptualize brand equity into four other dimensions including brand knowledge, brand esteem, brand relevance and brand differentiation (Kimpakorn & Tocquer, 2010). Brand differentiation is the philosophy of branding and is related to relevance, however both Aaker's (1991) and Keller's (2003) studies have not listed "differentiation" in their brand equity model (Kimpakorn & Tocquer, 2010). In another research done by Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1985), it is indicated that the concept of brand equity needs adaptation for expansion into the perspective of business services especially regarding the particular nature of services. While other literature reviews on brand equity relate consumer goods (Aaker, 1991, 2002; Ambler, Kokkinaki & Puntoni, 2004, de Chernatony, 2002; Franzen & Bouwman, 2001; Keller, 2001; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995; Srivasta & Shocker, 1991) and the other literature on service brand management (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1998; Berry, 2000; Prasad & Dev, 2000; Kim & Kim, 2004) state that the concept of brand equity is not only defined with other viewpoints (financial or marketing), but current existing models also have dissimilar constructs with other common dimensions like brand awareness, perceived quality, brand association and brand relationship. Kimpakorn and Tocquer's (2010) research state that the writing on branding highlighted the marketing activities as a main basis of brand equity because a lot of customer goods and brands have been constructed in the course of advertising (p. 380). Furthermore, the service branding model constructed by Berry (2000) indicates that the service brand equity can be generated with the functioning of effective brand communication and also customer experience.

In keeping with Aaker (1991) and Keller (2003), the concept of brand equity has both aspects of marketing and finance. From a financial viewpoint, it is possible to create certain levels of value to the brand in monetary terms, which is helpful for managers in case of merger, acquisition and divestiture functions. While from the marketing viewpoint, brand equity is looked from the customer's perspective to ease marketers from comprehending the brand in the minds of customers and construct effective marketing programs to develop the brand. Several studies believe that brand equity has a relationship with the firm itself, that is, the relationship between brand equity and a firm's cash flow, revenue, and marketing effectiveness (Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Mahajan, Rao, & Srivastava, 1994; Ailawadi, Lehmann, & Neslin, 2003). Keller (1993, 2001) state that customer-based brand equity is based on knowledge about the brand.

There are two basic approaches to measuring brand equity through the definition of customer based brand equity. Firstly, the approach is "indirect" that evaluates potential sources of customer-based brand equity by classifying and tracking customers' brand knowledge structures. While "direct" approach would evaluate customer-based brand equity more directly by assessing the real impact of brand knowledge on customers' reaction to different elements of the marketing program. The outline of the direct approach consists of the financial or market-outcome-based measures of brand equity such as revenue premium (Ailawadi et al., 2003) and brand equity as a determinant of brand extendibility (Randall, Ulrich, & Reibstein, 1998).

On the word of Aaker (1991), brand equity in marketing terms is "a set of brand assets and liabilities that are linked to a brand which includes or deducts from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and /or to that firms customers." In addition, consumer based brand equity relates to the effect of brand knowledge on the response from consumers with regard to the marketing of the product (Keller, 1993). However, in

relation to employer branding, brand equity relates to the effect of brand knowledge on potential and existing employees of the firm. Finally, employer brand equity pushes forward potential applicants to apply and at the same time, encouragement should be given to existing employees so that they will stay on and support their company.

Subsequently, this study also employ the theory of psychological contract. Robinson's (1996) study discuss that the scope of the relationship between employee and employer can be explained through the understanding of the psychological contract concept, namely; job satisfaction and employee roles (Robinson, 1996), organizational commitment (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994) and neglect or exit (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). There is also some evidence that it is possible for firms to manage psychological contracts by using the human resource policies and practices (Marks, 2001). An early study by Argyris (1960) and Schein (1965) define psychological contract as "some form of tacit and implied agreement of regulation that involves at least two individuals". However, many scholars quote the definition of psychological contract by Rousseau (1989; 1995; 2001) which state that psychological contract can be defined as "an individual perception on the matters of terms and regulations of a reciprocal exchange contract between the employees and their employers (Castaing, 2006; Hughes & Palmer, 2007; Latornell, 2007; Turnley, Bolno, Lester & Bloodgood, 2003; Chaundhry, Coyle-Shapiro & Wayne, 2010).

Meanwhile, Edwards and Karau (2007) focus on the matters of employee perception of the psychological contract. Development of the psychological contract is believed to start immediately from the day the employee is recruited. This is made clear by the employer either explicitly or implicitly and the employees must fulfill their day to day interactions among them and their employers (Edwards & Karau, 2007). However, some of the expectations involve perceived promises. Some of them are constructed

when there is lack of perceived promises or psychological contract as employees expect to have such obligations from their superiors due to their contribution to the firm (Robinson, 1996). In 1997, Morrison and Robinson have added the understanding of psychological contracts and conceptualized the perceived promises as a “communication of future intent” (p. 228).

Guest (2004) postulate that the main focal point of psychological contracts is the relationship of employee and employer at the individual level. Furthermore, some researchers believe that psychological contract includes the employee belief upon the obligation and regulation of the exchange agreement between an employee and the firm (Robinson & Morrison, 1994; Rousseau, 1989). An employment relation is naturally interdisciplinary and is pictured on the scope of social science (Latornell, 2007). In another research by Brotherton (2003), he argues that amalgamation of psychology into the employment relations is significantly lacking in a sense that those two factors are different in terms of their focus level; employment relations is more focused on a macro level issue that emphasizes on institutions; while focus of psychology is more towards the behavior at the individual-level. Latornell (2007) also indicates that since employment relations is primarily focused on the process of job regulations, there should be more concern towards the relationship of trade unions and employer institutionally and psychological contract which is more towards the individual level earns likely less attention in the employment relations.

Since psychological contract research is more focused on employee and employer relationship in the individual level, influence of the structural elements in the employment relation system is completely discounted. The concept of psychological contract is said to be studied more in the organizational behavior field (Latornell, 2007). The notion of understanding that the psychology contract is more towards the individual

level has also been stated in Edward and Karau's (2007) study. They determine the difference between psychological contract and social contract, that is, psychological contract is assumption and expectation that exist among employee-employer, while social contract is the established assumption and norm of the employment relationship (Edwards & Karau, 2007).

Anderson and Schalk (1998) determined two aspects that are focused in the psychological contract which are transactional and relational. Rousseau (1995, 2001) state that there are three forms of contracts which are transactional, relational and also balanced contracts. Anderson and Schalk's (1998) study signifies that transactional focuses more on economic interest and the benefit which is materially in nature that the employee consider they may receive due to their relationship with the firm. Chaudhry *et al.* (2010) add that transactional contract is short term in nature (p. 249) while relational is focused more on the socio-emotional interest. These interests include development of work, status, loyalty and identification which the employees may be entitled to.

Subsequently, Dabos and Rousseau (2004) define relational contract as "high affective commitment, strong staff-firm integration, and stability built on the tradition and history of the relationship" (p. 54). Balanced contract has been defined by Hui, Lee and Rousseau (2004) as a combination of transactional and relational contract features that includes the exchange of staff performance, well-defined and subjective, due to organizational efforts to achieve a competitive advantage. Enabling employees to be marketable through their career development is the main features of balanced contracts (Rousseau, 2000).

Moreover, career support, training and career development are included in the organization's obligation to the workers. Rousseau (1995) in her study states that

psychological contract not only involves expectation, but also involves reciprocal obligation. In a recent study by Chambel and Alcover (2011), they determine that there are four categories of psychological contract that consists of diverse organizational obligation. The first obligation is relational, which is the contract that deals with employee concern, well-being and employment security. Balanced is the obligation that provides job development internally and externally and higher challenge-level goals. The third obligation is transactional and this is the obligation that fixes or limits the job or task and restricted job involvement and commitment. Finally is transitional obligation which affects the breakdown or absence of an agreement where commitment between the two parties are tough to be explained or do not exist at all (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Hui *et al.*, 2004; Rousseau, 2000).

In the same research, Chambel and Alcover (2011) indicate that in a psychological contract, a worker with a general relational orientation to the working relationship and believe that the organization has or will provide them with socio-emotional resources that will reciprocate with the attitude or behavior that affects their contribution to the company. On the other hand, employees who are transactional oriented in general, have the assumption of a working relationship or perceive that the resources that are provided by the company is materialistic in nature and their work intention is just towards economic domination, their response of reciprocal is to restrict their attitude and behavior to a lower level that is expected by their firm (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006, 2007; Druker & Stanworth, 2004; Millward & Hopkins, 1998).

Chaundhry *et al.* (2010) indicate that an employee should be able to understand the evolving nature of psychological contract through the assigning responsibility process. In more understandable phrases the perception of employees on the extent of psychological contracts have undergone changes that are affected by the extent to which

the workers hold the organization's accountability. There are three types of responsibility attributions that have dissimilar effects on the psychological contract, namely; intentionality, foreseeability and justifiability.

Intentionality is pictured as one of the features of attribution that directly influences the employee perception upon the breach of psychological contract (the failure of firms to keep fulfill their promise) (Lester *et al.*, 2002; Robinson, 1996; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Next, foreseeability suggests that workers are involved with organizational commitment to the extent that the context change has been projected. Foreseeability attribution signified that the firm is accountable for the event accordance to omission on their part (Chaundhry *et al.*, 2010). Then, justifiability has the opposite effect compared to intentionality attribution which is justifiable and has the justifying consequence that occurs even during the condition was considered non excusable and blameworthy (Chaundhry *et al.*, 2010).

Turnley *et al.* (2003) indicate that the social exchange theory may explain what the responses of employees are when their assumptions, expectations of their psychological contract fail to be fulfilled. Based on Morrison and Robinson's (1997) view, they determine that psychological contract is likely to be breached when there are differences in nature with what they have been promised and what they received, thus the fact that discrepancy develops inequality in employment relations. Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood and Bolino (2002), and Robinson (1996) state in their research that a breach or violation of psychological contract will negatively affect the positive work attitudes, loyalty and level of job performance and organizational commitment of the employees.

Overall, it is reasonable to build a model based on the combination of a resource-based view (RBV), competitive advantage, internal marketing, brand equity and psychological contract to explain the relationships between OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The scope of this study focuses on five aspects, which includes OI, OCB, OEB, OC and type of respondents.

This study focuses on the employees' OI, employees' OCB, employees' OEB and employees' OC in a Malaysian hotel industry. The respondents of this study are the employees of hotels in Malaysia. The study covers the whole population of hotels in Malaysia but focuses more on 3, 4 and 5-star hotels. As such, the sample of this study is limited to the employees of the 3, 4 and 5-star hotels in the country. 3, 4 and 5-star hotels were chosen as those properties most likely to be operating in the full fledged operation departments like food and beverage, front office and housekeeping. It is also the sector of the hotel industry where the widest range of skills (technical, technological, emotional, aesthetic) are likely to be required in the workplace (Baum & Devine, 2007).

1.6 Contributions of the Study

1.6.1 Theoretical Contributions

The popularity of OEB among practitioners and the lack of academic research on the topic raise interest among management scholars (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2006). This study intends to improve on existing literature by examining OC as the consequence of OEB.

1.6.2 Methodological Contributions

The contribution is on the measurement scale of OEB. In terms of measuring OEB construct, the product brand equity construct will be adopted. To date, no previous studies have developed a measurement for OEB in the employer brand equity literature by adapting and adopting product brand equity. Therefore, this scale needs to be developed in order to meet the non-existent measurement on OEB in the study of employer brand equity. This study is also trying to validate the scale of OI, OCB, OEB and OC in the Malaysian setting.

1.6.3 Practical Contributions

Firstly, the management of the hotels will be prepared with pertinent information on whether OI and OCB have an influence on OEB dimensions. As a matter of fact, this study provides guidelines on each type of OI and OCB dimensions that are related to OEB dimensions.

Secondly, this study assists the hotel management to identify the OI and OCB dimensions that are perceived by employees. Achieving proper linkage between OI and OCB is important in encouraging OC as predicted by the psychological contract theory. As such, this study provides useful information to the hotel management on the relevant OI dimensions that match OCB dimensions.

Thirdly, this study provides information on which OEB dimensions that have a relationship with OC. There is a need for the hotel management to play a part in assisting employees to feel that they are part of the organization.

Lastly, this study adds to the existing knowledge of OEB in a developing country such as Malaysia, particularly among hotel businesses.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

The definitions of key terms used as a fundamental guideline in this study are presented as follows:

1.7.1 Organizational Employer Branding

Ambler and Barrow (1996) defines employer branding as the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employing company. The Conference Board (2001) also define employer branding as the brand that establishes the identity of the firm as an employer. It encompasses the firm's value system, policies and behaviors towards the objective of attracting, motivating, and retaining the firm's current and potential employees. Moreover, Backhaus and Tikoo (2004) define employer branding as the process of building an identifiable and unique employer identity, and the employer brand as a concept of the firm that differentiates it from its competitors. Based on the different definitions, this study defines organizational employer branding (OEB) as a targeted long-term strategy to attract and retain future and current employees.

1.7.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In accordance with Organ (1988), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is defined in the study as flexible behavior directed at individuals or at the organization as a whole, which goes beyond existing role prospect and benefits or is anticipated to benefit the organization. According to this definition developed by Organ (1988), OCB refers to organizationally valuable behaviors and gestures that can neither be forced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual assurance of reward.

1.7.3 Organizational Identity

Albert and Whetten (1985) define organizational identity (OI) as what is central, distinctive and continuing about a firm, and is vital to members' efforts to make sense in and of organizations in ways that eases effective action.

1.7.4 Organizational Commitment

On the word of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), organizational commitment (OC) is defined as a strong desire to sustain service or employment in the organization. Lee, Law and Bobko (1999) also define OC as loyalty to the organization and mobilization of all employees in the development of its goals, purposes and infrastructure.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 gives an overview of the background of the study and discusses the importance of the relationship among the OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

Chapter 2 involves the literature review on past theoretical and empirical work pertaining to the areas of OI, OCB, OEB and OC. The research framework and approaches to the study are found towards the end of this chapter.

The next is Chapter 3 which is divided into three parts, namely, research methodology, operationalization and reliability and validity assessments. Research methodology includes research design, research instrument and the techniques used in sampling. Operationalization deals with the constructs and reliability and validity assessments.

Results from the data analysis are reported in Chapter 4. Chapter 4 examines the relationship between OI and OCB, OI, OCB and OEB as well as the impact on OC. Furthermore, this chapter investigates the mediating effects of OEB in relation to OI, OCB and OC and also the mediating effect of OCB with OI and OEB. An integrated model of the study is presented at the end of this chapter.

The findings of this study are discussed in Chapter 5. This includes the findings and its contribution, implication and limitations. Finally the chapter concludes with some directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the relationship between Organizational Identity (OI) and Organizational Employer Branding (OEB) and between Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Organizational Commitment (OC). It begins with exploring the understanding of the OEB. In addition, the discussion continues with OI and OCB. The discussion focuses on the contribution of OEB that leads to OC. Finally, this chapter ends with the description of OC and it relates to other important features in an organization.

2.1 Organizational Employer Branding (OEB)

Employer branding has been defined as the company's image that is seen through the eyes of its associates and potential hires, and is intimately connected to the employment experience of what it is like to work at a company, including tangibles such as salary and intangibles such as company culture and values (Ruch, 2002). Subsequently, this more up-to-date definition focuses on image, a concept by Ambler and Barrow (1996) which highlights the benefits to a larger extent.

The word employer brand appears to have originally been used in 1996 and defined by Ambler and Barrow (1996, p. 187) as "the package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employing

company". Recently, numerous variations of this definition have appeared in both the academic literature and the popular press (Sartain & Schumann, 2006, p. 6) "how a business builds and packages its identity, from its origins and values, to what it promises to deliver to emotionally connect employees so that they in turn deliver what the business promises to customers" and Minchington (2006, p.12) states that "the image of your organization as a 'great place to work' is in the mind of current employees and key stakeholders in the external market"

In accordance with Hirschman (1980), a brand can convey meaning beyond the tangible meaning. The ability to use a brand to convey symbolic benefits to prospective employees make employer branding especially useful.

Rosethorn (2009) is of the view that an employer brand will not be sustainable if it does not serve the organization and improve employee satisfaction and at the same time is a lacking element from many of these common definitions. Employer brand is best viewed as consisting of two elements which are the "value proposition" about what people might receive as a result of working for a particular employer, and the "employee experience" which represents the reality of the delivery of the deal. Rosethorn (2009) reveals a brief collection of the most principal definitions of employer brand and an attentive analysis of the similarities and differences. She recognizes that the concept of employer brand as a package of attributes is a constant subject in employer brand definitions and commonly relates to opportunity, rewards, people or work conditions (Rosethorn, 2009).

2.1.1 The Dimension of Branding in Organization

2.1.1.1 Employer Branding

Sartain and Schumann (2006), who help build successful employer brands at Yahoo! and Southwest Airlines put forward that it is the key role of employees in brand delivery that makes building and nurturing the employer brand as vital to success as promoting the consumer or corporate brand. They describe an interesting evolution in the relationships between businesses and employees in their book, *Brand from the Inside*. For many years, the connection between a company and its employees is clearly one-way; (which is) employees were simply expected to do as they are told. As time passed, businesses begin to believe that employee as partners in executing business strategy that give increase to the idea of an exchange of value, or contract between the business and the employees.

But, Sartain and Schumann (2006) claim this relationship is no more than a financial transaction or a functional relationship. What has really been the impulsion for formalizing employer brand management is that "employees began to demand a relationship that reach for something more: an emotional connection" (Sartain & Schumann, 2006, p. 24). As recommended in the empirical work of Moroko and Uncles (2008) on the flourishing characteristics of employer brands, this is a similar to the emotional experience that consumers seek from consumption of their chosen brands and suggests that employees can be considered as "consumers of work".

Based on Barrow and Mosley's (2006) view, they view while each level of branding has a divide and distinct purpose, companies do benefit from creating a synergy between their brands. Motivated and talented employees strengthen the organization's products and services and this will attract promising people to the organization. Based on Sartain and Schumann (2006), they suggest that developing motivated and customer-oriented

employees who can provide customer satisfaction relies on employees understanding the consumer brand promise and their role in delivering brand customer experience. The values presented in employer brand messages should not depart from those presented in the corporate brand, as employees, especially customer-facing employees, will recognize the cut off and it will affect their commitment to perform and deliver, which will finally have an impact on the bottom line success of the organization. As indicated by Rosethorn (2009), diverse aspects of the branding process that are regarded on the fringe of consumer branding take on a fundamental importance for employer brand alignment and brand management.

Subsequently, Moroko and Uncles (2008) claim that the precision of internal communications and the consistency with external communications is a prime opportunity for employees to evaluate the inferred promises of a company's brands. Candidates cannot readily assess a potential employing firm prior to experiencing employment because they frequently rely on the reputation of the corporate or consumer brand to fill in gaps in their knowledge. If the employer brand, the corporate brand and consumer brand are aligned, then this supports the employee's experience. The researcher further said that if a prospective employee transfers perceptions of the consumer brand that are not supported by the employment experience, then dissatisfaction could result. Goold (2007) indeed mentions that an additional characteristic of a strong employer brand is one that is able to really go beyond the consumer-led image of the organization. Apart from that, the type of work performed and the exact objective of an employer brand is to convey that the company represents an outstanding employment opportunity. Thus, a company involved in a possibly less appealing business (such as waste disposal) may in fact offer a terrific employer brand and truly be a great place to work.

Subsequently, the term employer brand appears to have first been used in 1996 by Simon Barrow, an advertising executive who assumed responsibility for a human resources assignment and quickly saw parallels between applying classic marketing principles to products and applying the same to recruitment advertising for potential employees (Barrow & Mosley, 2006). Moroko and Uncles (2008) claim that it has been proven that Barrow's idea was on target and the concept of employer brand shares theoretical foundations with both consumer and corporate branding. Employer branding has emerged as another tier in a firm's brand architecture and serves to bring alignment and purpose to the role of employees in the creation of value.

2.1.1.2 Consumer Branding

Olins (2003) claim that a modern brand management is commonly thought to have emerged when brand messages, in the form of words and pictures, were applied to packaged goods in the 1930s aim to influence housewives that one commodity item, with the same price and quality as any other, seemed different and desirable. Aaker (1991) argues that as symbols within a famous culture, brands can position a product in terms of its unique, functional benefits. Branding allows buyers to identify products that might benefit them and also infer consistency of product quality. Kotler and Armstrong (2009) view that sellers will also benefit from branding in that a brand name can become a foundation to build a story about a product and the brand name and trademark provide legal protection for the unique product features.

The role of brands in developed societies is persistent and conventional marketing wisdom suggests that branding is a strategy that effectively provides differentiation. However, Baskin (2009) and Schembri (2009) state that marketing scholars see the role of brands evolving away from a functional focus toward a more experiential role in the

societies in which the product brands are consumed. Schembri (2009) reports on more than three years of ethnographic research and focused on the customer experience of the iconic brand of Harley Davidson, she shows that in many instances, selecting a brand is not as much about choosing a product or a set of features as it is selecting the meaning the brand brings to the consumers lives. With this opinion, brands constitute a form of identity and display or signal to others who the users are or wish to be. Hence, brands consumed turn out to be part of our extensive selves (Belk, 1988).

To differentiate their offerings, marketers must go further than thinking of branding as simply an image identity and a method for communicating features and benefits, to creating and managing the experiences customers have with their brands. Many has been written about how consumers achieve a personal meaning through their consumption or usage and relationships with brands, including iconic brands such as Harley Davidson, Nike, Apple, Mountain Dew and Volkswagen (Holt, 2003).

However, in today's concurrent network world, the power and application of branding as an influence on consumption may be thinning, or at least changing, because of the many variables that can make consumer or company interactions unique. Baskin (2009) agrees that buyers have many more ways to interact with business and many ways to switch their relations between providers. For instance, in a service business, the customer and the front-line employees interact to create the service. From the perspective of a service provider, Mosely (2007) views that by adopting an approach to brand management, it is much more difficult than managing product brands because of two principal dimensions which are operational complexity and interpersonal complexity.

Operational complexities may involve a variety of components that must be brought together under the same brand name, on top of the number of steps, or the length of

time that is involved in the presentation and fulfillment of products offered in relation to a service. The interpersonal dimension presents an even greater degree of difficulty because it involves the personal interactions of both customers and the service provider employees. These can include a number of diverse people with varying amounts of knowledge, behaviors and relationship skills, all of which affect the efficiency of service delivery and presents significant challenges to providing a constant on brand experience (Mosely, 2007).

2.1.1.3 Corporate Branding

Ackerman (1998) posits that as consumer brands started to spread in the early 1990s, advertising agencies and marketing experts begin to focus on the maker's mark as the name of the corporation behind a product or service and the value a parent company's identity is conferred. At the beginning, corporate branding efforts emerged with a narrow set of elements such as slogans or taglines created to tell a distinctive story and strategies on how the name of the corporation should be promoted including design, advertising, sponsorships and others. Brand strategist and author Larry Ackerman highlight that "more than the name of a company, or a description of its business, the corporate brand is a synonym for the unique persona of the organization. It is a description of who's the company is, spelled out in a single, integrating idea or concept" (Ackerman, 1998, p. 34).

According to him, in this way, the corporate brand differs basically from a product or service brand. A corporate brand is defined as (much by) the culture of the organization as everything and can serve as an organizing mechanism to teach and align employees around a business strategy. Ackerman (1998) suggests that the strength behind a successful corporate brand is the internal work it takes to discover the organization's

identity, as in "what makes us tick, what are the distinctive characteristics of our organization, how do we make a difference to the people with whom we do business and the world in which we live" (Mahoney, 2000, p. 5).

In a business environment where brand, identity, mission, vision and other terminology is used regularly and yet tough to distinguish, Ackerman (2010) maintains that a "corporate brand is the expression of a competitive advantage, but organizational identity is the source of the advantage" (Mahoney, 2000, p. 5). Hence, organizational identity is "the bedrock of how an organization creates values - the proprietary contribution it makes to the marketplace" (Ackerman, 2010, p. 40) and any successful brand building, communication or organizational learning efforts must start with this organizational self-awareness.

Moreover, Balmer (2008) explores the notion of the corporate brand and distinguishes clearly the differences between product brands, corporate brands and corporate identities. The main difference between a product brand and a corporate brand lies in the fact that the corporate brand tends to be stuck in the values of the firm's founders, senior leaders, or owners, while product brands values tend to be false as the invention of marketing communicators (Balmer & Gray, 2003). He also calls out the point of concern within the organization as a main difference between product brands and corporate brands. Product brands are commonly managed by the marketing personnel, at a middle management level. Based on the economic benefit, strategic ties and opportunity for competitive advantage that is represented by a well-defined corporate brand make it a decided concern for the senior levels of management in the organization. As the third difference it in fact cited from Barrow and other early employer brand researcher, Balmer and Gray's (2003) confidence to the role of

employees as significantly important for transmitting the corporate brands values during their interfaces with customers.

2.1.2 Brand Image

Brand image is defined as “perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand association held in consumer memory” (Keller, 1993). These relations give reference to any brand aspect within the consumer’s recollection (Aaker, 1996). In addition, based on Roy and Banerjee’s (2007) view, they assert that brand image is the consumer’s judgment and thoughts of the brand. Faircloth (2005) further defines brand image as the general mental image that consumers have regarding a brand, and its distinctiveness in evaluation to the other brands. Brand image also includes a consumer’s knowledge and belief about the brand’s different products and its non-product attributes. Iversen and Hem (2008) posit that brand image represents the personal representation that consumers relate with the brand, which includes all the descriptions and evaluative brand-related information. Consequently, when consumers have a positive brand image, the brand’s messages will have a stronger influence as compared to competitor brand messages (Hsieh & Li, 2008). Burmann, Schaefer and Maloney (2008) further reiterate that brand image is a significant determinant of a buyer’s behavior. Brand image also plays an important role in the business to business market where it is difficult to differentiate between products and services that are based on their tangible attributes (Mudambi, Doyle & Wong, 1997).

2.1.2.1 Effects of Brand Image on Brand Equity

A positive brand image will have a positive influence on consumer behavior towards the brand in terms of increasing loyalty, striking a price premium and generating positive word-of-mouth (Martenson, 2007). Brand image, according to studies on marketing, is a vital factor that will affect brand equity (Biel, 1992, 1993; Villareji-Ramos & Sanchez-Franco, 2005). The findings by Faircloth, Capella and Alford (2001) show that the more positive the brand image, the more consumers are willing to pay and thus the brand equity will be even greater. Besides, companies also want to take advantage of a stronger brand image to improve their own image (Rao, Mahajan, & Varayia, 1991). In order to increase their market share, many successful companies with an inferior brand image will merge and acquire companies that have a superior brand image (Nguyen & Kleiner, 2003). In doing so, companies will attempt to change consumer perception of the inferior brand, and sustain their cognitive consistency towards brands with an inferior and superior image, as stated by the balance theory (Heider, 1958). The balance theory proposes that, “consumers’ value harmony among their thoughts and they are motivated to reconcile incongruent thoughts” (Dean, 2002). Thus, when there is inequality, people change their attitudes or behaviors to restore a balance. Similarly, Dalakas and Levin (2005) claim that the stronger the attitude towards the original objects, the more probable it is that similar attitudes will be held towards other associations related to that object. This image improvement is the most important goal that a company with an inferior brand image hopes to achieve upon completion of the merger and acquisition.

Based on the above, if consumers have a positive attitude towards the obtained brand, they may agree to a positive attitude or change their existing attitude towards the

obtained brand. This means that the stronger the image of a company with an inferior brand, the greater will a company's brand equity be.

2.1.3 Brand Awareness

Brand awareness and perceived value is active rather than fixed and is associated to perception and attitude formation. Hoyer and Brown (2001), Keller (1993) and Stephen (1993) state that both brand awareness and perceived value are related to consumer purchasing power and the former plays a key role when consumers have very little or no experience at all with an offering. In such a situation, consumers purchase behaviors are largely based on a "trusted", superior or well-known brand name. Furthermore, it was found that consumers have a preference for merchandise with images that are well-matched with their actual or ideal self-concept (Schenk & Holman, 1980; Sirgy, 1980). Therefore, brand awareness does act as a strong predictor of consumer behavior in three ways:

1. Brand awareness helps the consumer to decide and speed up the decision process in a purchase.
2. A consumer is more likely to prefer a product that has a higher brand of awareness, regardless of its quality and price (Macdonald & Sharp, 2000).
3. The preferences of the consumer in repeat purchase behavior are strongly influenced by brand awareness.

Schiffman, Bednall, O'Cass, Paladino and Kanuk (2005) assert that attitude is also related to a variety of consumer behaviors including repeat purchase, implication to others (word-of-mouth), high-quality evaluation and intentions. Fazio, Powell and Williams (1989) further view that attitude is based on personal experience which is a

stronger predictor of consumer behavior compared to advertising or persuasion. Similarly a constant favorable attitude towards a brand is more likely to result in brand commitment that is related to purchase behavior and is an end result called brand loyalty (Dick & Basu, 1994). On the whole, brand loyalty occurs when a consumer believes that a product or service is the best among the optional brands in terms of quality, price or performance and therefore, repeatedly purchases it or advertises it to others. Thus, consumer satisfaction with a brand is positively related to a continuous brand commitment and an intention to repurchase (Fullerton, 2005).

2.1.4 Brand Quality

In accordance with Aaker and Biel (1993, p.28), perceived quality can be defined as “...the consumer’s judgment about product overall excellence or superiority. Zeithaml (1988) further defines perceived quality as a high level perceptual abstraction, rather than a concrete attribute Richardson, Dick and Jain (1994) find that consumer’s unfavorable behavior to a brand name grocery store is greater than the result of consumer’s favorable behavior in relying on extrinsic cues as the consumer assesses product quality. The study of extrinsic and intrinsic cue effects on perceptions of store brand quality by Richardson, Dick and Jain (1994) predict three different situations that may happen. Firstly, customers will consider products identified with national brand extrinsic cues of better quality than products identified with store brand extrinsic cues. Secondly, customers will consider national brand factors better than store brand factors without awareness of the extrinsic cue performance level. Thirdly, perceive value of money has a stronger correlation with willingness to buy store brand than with the perceive quality of the store brand. Furthermore, the study done by the researcher suggested that extrinsic cues explain a greater variance in the perceive quality of the

store brand than the intrinsic cue. Dodds, Monroe and Grewal (1991) state that price, brand name, retailer reputation and level of advertising are four extrinsic cues often related to perceive quality and value. Dawar and Parker (1994) examine the information cue which relates to product quality. Consequently, they find that brand name is more important than the price or physical appearance. Sullivan (1998) finds that brand name provides information by increasing awareness and serves as a substitute for quality.

2.1.5 Brand Loyalty

Generally, brand loyalty is distinct as “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause a switching behavior” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). Although there might be dissimilarity in loyalty measures between attitudinal loyalty and behavioral loyalty, Olsen (2002) points out that loyalty is normally measured by behavioral measures rather than attitudinal measures.

Dick and Basu (1994) propose that brand loyalty’s special treatment is the positive word of mouth and a greater confrontation among loyal customers to competitive strategies. Apparently such findings support marketers to build and sustain brand loyalty among customers. When striving to achieve such goals, information on factors determining the plan of brand loyalty among customers becomes a vital matter. Dick and Basu (1994) further view that even a fairly essential repeat purchase may not reflect true loyalty to a product but may merely be a consequence from situational conditions such as brands stocked by the retailer. In their framework, attitude is a requirement for true loyalty to occur. Accordingly, they define repeat purchasing with no favorable attitude as false loyalty. Similarly, Assael (1998) conceptualizes brand loyalty as repeat

purchase under high participation and defines repeat purchase under low involvement as disinterest.

The connection between attitude and behavior is well acknowledged among consumer researchers although this connection appears to be most probable when applied to high involvement situations (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, even with regard to regularly purchased consumer goods, some consumers will put forth more involvement to the purchase decision than others. Understanding the role of relative attitude to brand loyalty is important for brand managers in order to enhance and maintain consumers' repeat purchasing of their brand. Only if an increase in relative attitude results in an increase in repeat purchase, then it is meaningful for marketers seeking to influence repeat purchasing through attitude building marketing strategies.

2.1.6 Brand Value

Brand value is, on the other hand, a notion that is not really well defined (Zeithaml, 1988). In general, it relates to the influence of a brand in the marketing mix or the impact of the brand name on reactions to other features of the marketing mix, such as the reactions to the actual product. From the commercial end, companies such as "InterBrand" put dollar values on the concept of a company's brand value (Farquhar, Han & Ijiri, 1992). Indeed, brand value may enter into the sales and purchase price of a company because brand value can endure when the actual physical products change, evolve, mature and die. Branding is, therefore, a major issue in a product strategy. What is quite interesting, however, is the excessive amount of attention paid to this concept.

The view of brand value receives more general treatment among marketing researchers, who deal with the notion of "brand equity". Brand equity may be distinct as all tangible

and intangible assets of a brand are held in the mind of the consumer. There are 13,300 search results in Google Scholar for the brand equity entry. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) view that brand equity relates to the extent of five categories namely, brand name recognition, perceived brand quality, strong mental and emotional associations, patents or trademarks, and channel relationships. Aaker (1998) defines brand equity as the brand's value or financial worth and otherwise. Branding is the "break or make" of a product. The most precious products have such high brand equity that they are considered a company's asset. Brand equity is a set of features that customers associate with the product. Brands differ in the amount of power and value they have in the marketplace. Brand equity is highly related to the number of brand's customers who are:

1. Satisfied and would acquire costs by changing brands;
2. Value the brand
3. Loyal to the brand.

2.1.7 Factor Affecting Employer Branding

In particular, there are few factors that affect employer branding. The factors that affecting employer branding can be further discussed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Factors Affecting Employer Brand

Factors	Arguments
Reputation	<p>According to The Reputation Institute, a global research organization dedicated to improve knowledge about reputation measurement, valuation and management, the specific difference between brand and reputation is this: “A brand is a promise. Making a relevant and distinctive promise helps to build a brand. A corporate reputation is built by fulfilling the promise to stakeholders. A company therefore owns its brand, but stakeholders own its reputation”. (The Reputation Institute, 2009).</p> <p>Charles Fombrun, founder of the Reputation Institute, maintains that a company has both a corporate reputation and a workplace reputation. The difference lies in the nature of the attributes and the dependent variable, which is reputation as a place to work, instead of reputation overall (The Reputation Institute, 2009)</p> <p>Since there has been an outburst of rankings and lists which have lent credibility to the discipline of organization reputation (Martin & Hetrick, 2006), ratings and rankings are shorthand descriptions of how stakeholders feel about a company, and these rankings influence stakeholder support for the company's activities.</p> <p>Corporate reputation is described as the collective judgments of an organization's overall character by groups of alike interested and informed people that are based primarily on the past actions of the firm (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Hannon & Milkovich, 1996). In general, a firm's reputation is influenced by factors such as financial performance, company size, media exposure, advertising expenditures, and type of industry (Cable & Graham, 2000; Fombrun, 1998).</p>
Signaling	<p>Signaling is a vital component of building a strong workplace status and in a business background it means that a company with positive information about itself will 'signal' that information to others.</p> <p>Hodes research reports that 95% of all job seekers' first experience with a company comes from a visit to the careers section of the firm's website. In relation to employer brand, this means that before an applicant even walks into the door, he or she has met the firm and formed a first intuition about who the company is and what it stands for (Bernard Hodes Global Network, 2006).</p> <p>Since the emergence of the internet, which creates a public forum for signaling, signaling theory has been applied to the use of company websites (Joyce, 2003).</p> <p>A positive workplace reputation, such as recognition on a best employer list, becomes a source of information in the labor market that reduces the organization's search costs and the training related costs associated with labor turnover, providing meaning for signaling theory in the relationships of talent management, workplace reputation and financial performance (Joo & McLean, 2006)</p> <p>Besides leveraging a firm's external website and participating in market studies and surveys, companies can signal commitment to an employer brand and key differentiators by addressing them in the company's annual report and key internal publications such as newsletters, employee emails and internal websites/intranets (Van Dam, 2006). Companies with strong employer brands find additional ways to signal their brand values internally, utilizing opportunities such as receptions, employee meetings, social events and even facilities design to create distinctive experiences.</p>

Factors	Arguments
Resource Utilization and Development	<p>The advantage of applying employer brand to the experience of current employees is grounded in a theory known as a <i>resource-based view</i> (RBV) of a firm (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Joo & McLean, 2006; Martin & Hetrick, 2006; Mosely, 2007). The strategy came into prominence in the early 1990s, about the same time as the rise of service-based firms and consultancies.</p> <p>Proponents of RBV theory believe that a company "develops a competitive advantage by not only acquiring but also developing, combining and effectively deploying its physical, human and organizational resources in ways that add unique value and are difficult to imitate" (Barney, 1991).</p> <p>Most RBV arguments are rooted in human resources, such as the combination of skills, knowledge and behavior of employees, or organizational resources like the control systems, routines and learning mechanisms available in an organization. These combinations are the result of complex social structures, built over time, and thus are difficult to understand and imitate (Joo & McLean, 2006).</p> <p>The evidence clearly suggests that employees are key in developing sustainable differentiation and that the intangible characteristics of an embedded brand philosophy are far more difficult for competitors to copy than the operational components of a business (Mosely, 2007).</p>
Identification, Commitment and Engagement	<p>The importance of employer branding is to make certain employees identify with the organization, and its brand and mission, to produce preferred outcomes for organizations (Martin & Hetrick, 2006).</p> <p>Identification in organization matters because it is the process whereby people come to define themselves, communicate that definition or image to others and use it to make decisions about their work and their lives (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008).</p> <p>Like the utilization of an iconic brand, people often choose firms based on attributes that provide symbolic benefits related to perceptions about things like the prestige of a company and the social approval they imagine they will enjoy if they go to work for such a firm (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004)</p> <p>Being associated with a firm publicly recognized as a best place, for example, enhances one's self. After self-enhancement, individuals will often include other motives, such as self-consistency as important conditions, and choose a job on the basis of how well their aspirations and values fit with those of the organization (Erickson & Gratton, 2007)</p> <p>Employees need the will: the sense of mission, passion and pride that motivates them to give the all-important discretionary effort. And they need the way: the resources, support and tools from the organization to act on their sense of mission and passion" (Towers Perrin, 2003, p. 5).</p> <p>Major practitioner research studies by global consultancies like Towers Perrin, Mercer, ISR and Watson Wyatt Worldwide present similar statistics about the factors that influence employees to engage in their work and stay with a firm. Regardless of the individual factors emphasized, employees who are more engaged perform better and miss fewer days of work are those that rate their companies effective on promise and delivery of the employee experience (Watson Wyatt, 2009).</p> <p>Studies show that it costs an average of two and a half times an employee's salary to replace him or her. It is much more cost effective to retain employees and invest in programs that mean the most to them and</p>

Factors	Arguments
	will maintain commitment (Bos, 2009).
Organizational Culture	<p>Organizational culture in <i>Human Relations</i>, culture is defined this way: “Culture is a multifaceted phenomenon that frames our meaning making, influences our behavior, is enacted in our organization rituals and evolves through the gradual shifts in enacted, emotional and verbal discourse”. (Hawkins, 1997, p. 431)</p> <p>Schroeder explains in detail that brands can be considered communicative objects and brand management is often about the brand owner communicating specific messages in support of the brand's purpose. But this view fails to take into account the context that a surrounding culture adds to the communication message and the idiosyncratic meaning making of each individual who receives the brand message (Schroeder, 2009).</p> <p>Dennis Hahn, of a Portland-based brand agency has authored a white paper on what he refers to as brand culture. He stated that a brand, like culture, is essentially a meaning-making system which generates a set of values that is embraced by its target audience (Lowell & Hahn, 2010)</p> <p>So creators of employer brands can extend this line of thinking to portray a process where employees receive multiple inputs or brand messages, including deliberate attempts by the organization to shape their impressions. But, these messages are filtered by the meaning-making influence of organizational culture which is a combination of individual cognition and the values of the collective group (Hawkins, 1997).</p>

2.2 Organizational Identity (OI)

OI delineates the employee’s view about himself or herself. In other words, at least a part of an employee’s self-image is said to result from the organizations that a person chooses to identify with. If the organization is said to have such a strong impact on how an employee feels about himself or herself, then it would appear to follow that the employee will therefore do everything he or she can to make the organization successful, thereby enhancing the image of his or her own identity (Norman, Avey, Nimnicht & Pigeon, 2010). Albert and Whetten (1985) further view that OI is frequently described as what is central, distinctive and continuing about a firm, and is vital to members’ efforts to make sense in and of organizations in ways that ease effective action. The importance and equivocality of the OI construct and its relevance across multiple theoretical perspectives and levels of analysis (Cornelissen, 2006; Pratt,

2003; Scott & Lane, 2000; Whetten & Mackey, 2002) reveal how significant and how difficult it is to determine what is or is believed to be central, unique and stable in collectivity.

Drawing from individual identity theories, OI theorists also trust that both continuity and distinctiveness are required to successfully distinguish one organization from another. Continuity in identity provides an organization a sense of belonging or its “own place in society,” offering stability to its members (Tajfel, 1972, p. 293; Whetten & Mackey, 2002). Distinctiveness in identity suits the needs of uniqueness to be a part of others (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Brewer, 1991).

OI is also viewed through the scope of social identity theory, or SIT (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). SIT attempts to understand and identify why individuals classify themselves into some groups, but not others. It has been proposed that perhaps the process of social recognition is both comparative and relational by nature (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). There are said to be two separate purposes of social identification which are to segment and order the social environment through one’s cognitive processes and to enable each individual to visualize and define themselves within a social context. The second of these functions is of most interest to SIT because it suggests that individuals categorize themselves and others within each social context in which they are embedded at the time by engaging different categorization schemas (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

According to SIT, the self-concept is influenced by various recognizable qualities and the similarities that the individual has to referent others relative to these qualities. Such qualities include one’s abilities, attributes, and psychological qualities. The degree of similarity between the individual and the organization’s leadership and management can directly influence the degree of identification that a person has with the organization.

This identification might make the organization more attractive to the employee, which might lead to actual behavior in the form of OCBs (Rousseau, 1998).

Moreover, Brown (1997) view that organizations' identities are key assets in their continuing search for legitimacy. Suchman (1995) define legitimacy as a view that something, individual or an event is attractive, proper or appropriate within a given social context, is official to those organizations that gratify stakeholders' rational calculations based on self-interest, match to their understandings of what is good and proper, and/or offer explanations that ease their anxieties.

The more intense the interactions, the more aware members may be of their OI (Kawakami & Dion, 1995), because interaction increases the probability of members to use their OI concepts. For example, Van Knippenberg and Van Schie (2000) find that members are more aware of the identity of their work group than of their OI, because they interact more frequently with their work group than with other members of the organization.

Table 2.2: OI from Previous Researcher's Perspective

Author	Description
Albert and Whetten (1985)	Described as what is central, distinctive, and enduring about a firm. The researchers further argue that OI is vital to members' efforts to make sense in and of organizations in ways that facilitate effective action.
Albert and Whetten (1985)	From a social actor perspective of organizational identity, an organization is viewed as conducting social intercourses and processing rights and responsibilities as if it is a single body of collective members. From this perspective, organizational identity is believed to be communicated via an organization's "categorical self-descriptions" to satisfy the identity requirements.
Albert and Whetten (1985) Whetten & Mackey (2002)	Organizational identity is communicated through self-descriptions resulting from the question "who are we, as an organization"
Dutton and Dukerich (1991)	Organizational identity is a self-referential belief, an answer to the question, "What kind of organization is this?" Organizational researchers view this concept as the key factor in managerial perception.
Fiol (1991)	Organizational Identity is a potential source of competitive advantage.
Barney et al. (1998),	Organizational Identity is a significant factor in strategic decision making.

Author	Description
Gioia and Thomas (1996)	
Hsu and Hannan (2005)	For organizational sociologists, an organization's identity comprises a perception of its features and actions by internal and external audiences, with identity being a source of legitimacy if it suit within a recognized and clearly defined category of organizations.
Whetten and Mackey (2002)	Organizational identity is best described as a metaphor or phenomenological, as socially constructed or objectively existing 'essence', and a property of organizations as social actors.
Glynn and Abzug (1998, 2002), Glynn & Marquis (2007), Porac, Thomas, and Baden-Fuller (1989)	Organizational identity places the organization in a social space by naming the organization as being like some organizations and unlike others.
Dutton et al. (1994), Elsbach and Kramer (1996), Hatch and Schultz (1997)	Organizational identities define members' perceptions of their organizations' traits and represent what members of an organization feel and think about a specific organization.
Brown (1997)	Organizations' identities are key assets in their continuing search for legitimacy.
Sillince and Brown (2009)	Organizational identities are phenomenological, socially constructed, rhetorical constructs and concerned with what organizations are set for and what higher-ranking managers want them to become.

As indicated by Barney et al. (1998) and, Gioia and Thomas (1996), OI is a significant factor in strategic decision making. The reverse is evident for people with a high control-related belief, suggesting that perceiving ability to control is a potential in activating cognitive skills. Perceiving ability to control also plays a critical role in evaluating opportunity and threat (Jackson & Dutton, 1988) and in identity management (He & Baruch, 2010). In their research on cognitive mechanism underlying organizational identity, He and Baruch (2010) demonstrate how managers continuously associate an identity dimension with its positive function in the past or its potential to assist them in the future. All in all, perception of control may have a strong association with concepts that are activated in the top managers' minds during strategic decision making. Furthermore, research shows that when individuals feel in control they tend to perform better in cognitive tasks (Thompson, 1993), especially in complex analytical skills. For example, Wood, Bandura and Bailey (1990) show that individuals with a low control-related belief tend to be less systematic in their analysis and use more exploratory strategies.

2.2.1 The Multiple and Hybrid Organizational Identities

Hybrid OIs, characterized by having dual identities that are in conflict, may only be a type of multiple identity organization. Pratt and Foreman (2000) develop a typology of possible managerial responses to multiple identities, depending upon the degree of identity, plurality and synergy. However, their multiple identities' approach focuses on possible synergies among identities, with simultaneous identities not necessarily being in conflict, but with any conflicts that are more likely to be hidden rather obviously (Corley et al., 2006).

Pratt and Foreman (2000) examine two dimensions of multiple identities: plurality and degree of synergy. They suggest that organizations with multiple identities must consider how many identities they wish to maintain and that these organizations need to maintain some degree of tolerance, harmony, or balance between multiple identities. A multiple identities approach suggests not only that organizations can have more than two identities (Fiol, 1991, 2001; Glynn, 2000) but also that these many identities need not conflict with each other. Furthermore, this approach argues that identity conflicts, if they exist, may be latent rather than manifest; and OIs may be somewhat unrelated, or even synergistic.

The most common conceptualization of multiple organizational identities is Albert and Whetten's (1985) concept of hybrid or dual identities. Hybrid identities are combinations of fully articulated identities that seem not to belong together. Albert and Whetten (1985) distinguish between ideographic and holographic hybrid identities. Ideographic identities are held by specific subgroups in the organization (e.g., departments) but are not common to all organizational members. Using the preceding conceptualizations of "sharedness" (above), these multiple identities are distributed and

compartmentalized in the organization. For illustrative examples, see Pratt and Rafaeli's (1997) treatment of organizational identity in a rehabilitation unit or Glynn and Abzug's (2002) study of the contest between the artistic and economic identities of the symphony orchestra. Holographic hybrid identities (Albert & Whetten, 1985), by contrast, occur when each of the organization's multiple identities is held by all organizational members; see Golden-Biddle and Rao's (1997) study of a non-profit's board of directors for an illustrative example.

Two general assumptions appear common to the hybrid approach. First, there is an assumption that all multiple identities are dual identities. Thus, organizations are limited in the number of multiple identities they can hold or express—they cannot literally be “all things to all people.”

Second, this approach assumes that multiple identities are often inherently conflict ridden (Glynn, 2000; Golden-Biddle & Rao, 1997; Pratt & Rafaeli, 1997) because they are elements that typically do not go together (Albert & Whetten, 1985). Albert and Adams (2002) classify hybrid identity organizations along three primary dimensions: (a) the extent to which the elements constituting the hybrid are inviolate (i.e., cannot be compromised), (b) the extent to which each element is indispensable (i.e., cannot be eliminated), and (c) the extent to which the elements are incompatible (i.e., cannot function well together). They further argue that the elements must hang together and form a meaning-producing, legitimacy-garnering, and functional whole. From this perspective, hybrid identity organizations thus encompass multiple, internally coherent, legitimacy granting institutional elements that cannot be changed (inviolate), that cannot be divested (indispensable), and that fundamentally conflicts with one another (incompatible).

Hybridization is taken up by scholars working at the level of transnational teams. Earley and Mosakowski (2000) characterize emergent meaning systems in such teams as hybrid cultures, with effective teams having strong team cultures offering a common sense of identity. Hybrid identities seem particularly to be found in binational organizations, such as in the negotiated organizational culture of a German-Japanese joint venture study by Brannen and Salk (2000).

The survival and evolution of an organization with a hybrid identity depends upon this hybrid being genuine in the eyes of insiders and outside audiences, especially resource providers to the organization (Gioia, Majken & Corley, 2000; Glynn, 2000; Golden-Biddle & Rao, 1997). A hybrid identity may help to maintain an organization through providing greater access to resources, in spite of conflicts in role performances caused by contradictions in identity elements (Golden-Biddle & Rao, 1997).

2.2.2 Primary Form of Communication That Can Lead to OI and the Factors That Will Change OI in the Organization

Cheney (1983) reviews internal communication pieces as a primary form of organizational communication. He finds several techniques to promote a sense of unity between an organization and the individual. Cheney identified six specific forms:

Table 2.3: Techniques to Promote a Sense of Unity between an Organization and the Individual

Expression of concern for the individual	Words and content that highlight the important and essential role of employees to the organization
Recognition of individual contributions	Recognizing employees for their involvement to the organization
Shared values	Values employees share with the organization
Advocacy of benefits and activities	What the company does for employees, such as training
Praise by outsider	Encouraging employees to be part of the organization because it has won awards, been accepted as industry leaders, etc.
Testimonials by employees	Communication pieces using quotes from employees to stress the meaning of belonging to the organization

Albert and Whetten (1985) further state that organizational identities will change when organizations:

1. Form
2. Lose something that helps create identity (e.g. a manager or CEO)
3. Achieve something
4. Development
5. Experience a change in the “we” (e.g. takeover or merger)
6. Experience cutbacks

2.3 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

In accordance with Organ (1988), OCB is defined in the study as flexible behavior directed at individuals or at the organization as a whole, which goes beyond existing role prospect and benefits or is anticipated to benefit the organization. According to this definition developed by Organ (1988), OCB refers to organizationally valuable behaviors and gestures that can neither be forced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual assurance of reward.

Smith, Organ and Near (1983) use 16 items for measuring OCB, which include two fairly interpretable and distinct factors – altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism is defined as helping co-workers personally, such as supporting a co-worker to lift a heavy load. Generalized compliance is impersonal helpful behavior, such as being punctual and not wasting time on the work.

Organ (1988) anticipates five categories of OCB. Civic virtue suggests that employees responsibly participate in the political life of the organization. Conscientiousness means that employees carry out in-role behaviors well beyond the minimum required levels.

Altruism implies that they give help to others. Sportsmanship indicates that people do not complain, but have positive attitudes. Courtesy means that they treat others with respect.

Consequently, Podsakoff, MacKanzie, Paine and Bacharach (2000) discover almost 30 potentially different forms of OCB. However, they also asserted that the constructs greatly be related, so they might be captured in five general dimensions which are:

1. Altruism, or helping behavior – this involves voluntarily helping others with an organizationally relevant task or problem, such as helping others who have heavy workloads.
2. Conscientiousness (Preciseness) – namely going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance, such as attending at work above the norm
3. Sportsmanship – this reflects the employee's willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining, such as not wasting time complaining about trivialities
4. Courtesy (Good manners) – namely behaviors aimed at preventing work-related problems with others, such as not abusing the rights of others
5. Civic virtue – this reflects responsive, constructive involvement in the organization, such as keeping alongside of changes at the organization.

Additionally, Rousseau (1998) agrees that the level of similarity between individual and the whole organization's management and leadership can directly influence the level of identification that a person has with the company. Next, this identification might make

the organization to be more attractive to the employee, and will contribute to actual behavior in the form of OCBs.

Organ (1988), who was genuinely, conceptualize OCBs as the discretionary behaviors that are exhibited by an individual and not formally recognized by the organizational system, yet that generally facilitate the effective and efficient functioning of the organization to which the individual belongs.

Consistent with Smith, Organ and Near (1983), OCBs are originally categorized into one of two categories: altruistic behaviors or generalized compliance behaviors.

Table 2.4: The Differences between Altruistic Behaviors and Generalized Compliance Behaviors

Altruistic Behaviors	Altruistic behaviors are intended to help another individual. Such behavior would include helping a coworker with an assignment, covering for a coworker while the coworker is away from the office and similar behaviors aimed at helping a coworker that are not formally a part of the helper's recognized duties
Generalized Compliance Behaviors	Include those behaviors that fulfill with or support organizational policies, norms and procedures. These behaviors may include such things as being on time to work or supporting organizational policies

Source: Norman et al. (2010)

A meta-analysis by Organ and Ryan (1995) identify several attitudinal and dispositional predictors of OCB (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), whereas other studies pointed to personal and personality variables, to social exchange theory, to leadership, or to equity theory as relevant for a better understanding of this phenomenon (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Schnake, Cochran, & Dumler, 1995).

These theories generally suggest that OCB is a personality trait, a social response to supervisors' and/or peers' behavior, as well as a possible reaction of the individual to the behavior of his or her superiors or to other motivation based mechanisms in the workplace.

OCB has thus been recognized as a significant indicator of employees' performance that goes ahead of formal duties and has a major positive impact on organizational outcomes, service quality, effectiveness and long-range sustainability (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Although researchers have proposed "anywhere from two (Williams & Anderson, 1991) to seven (Podsakoff et al., 2000)" intra factors for OCB (Ehrhart, 2004, p. 63), the majority of theorists identify two dimensions of the behavior: (a) OCB-I, which is citizenship behavior directed toward individuals, and (b) OCB-O, which is citizenship behavior directed toward the entire organization or part of it.

Table 2.5: Value/Identity Base Motivation (VIM) Theory (Shamir, 1991; 1996).
Five Motivational Assumptions that May Relate to OCB

First assumption	Humans not only have the tendency to chase a goal but also the tendency to express their feelings, attitudes, and self-identities.
Second assumption	Humans are motivated to maintain and lift up both their self-esteem and their self-worth. Self-worth involves a sense of good value and moral worth and is surrounded in social norms and values concerning conduct. Self-esteem, on the other hand is linked to a person's sense of competence, power, and achievement (Gecas, 1982)
Third assumption	Humans are motivated to sustain and amplify their sense of self-consistency (Gecas, 1982). Such consistency has three categories: (a) consistency among all the components of self-identity at a given time (Higgins, Klein, & Strauman, 1985), (b) consistency between self-identity and behavior (Burke & Reitzes, 1981), and (c) consistency of self-identity across time (Turner, 1968).
Fourth assumption	Self-concept is partially composed of identities that locate the self in social categories. People obtain meaning from linkages to social collectives through their identities. Identities are ordered in the self-concept in order of their salience.
Fifth assumption	Behaviors based on the self-concept are not guided by specific goals all the time or a clear expectation of accomplishments and immediate rewards. They are often guided more by faith and probabilities.

Source: Adopted from Wang et al. (2011)

2.3.1 Past History of OCB

Determining the reasons on why individuals connected in OCBs has attracted a significant amount of research interest in both organizational behavior and social

psychology. George and Bettenhausen (1990) attempts to comprehend the correlates and causes of OCB frequently focus on individual characteristics. This writing completely assumes that people's personal characteristics and their reactions in and to the workplace influence the extent to which they will exceed the call of duty. On the other hand, current scholars have argued that these behaviors may be more understandable by an exploration of how they are entrenched in diverse contexts, such as the department, work group, or the organization itself (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004).

2.4 Organizational Commitment (OC)

On the word of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), OC is defined as a strong desire to sustain service or employment in the organization. Lee, Law and Bobko (1999) also define OC as loyalty to the organization and mobilization of all employees in the development of its goals, purposes and infrastructure. Satisfied employees and employees with high self-esteem and confidence are more possible to be attached with the organization (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings & Dunham, 1989). In addition, extremely dedicated employees are less to be expected to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Based on Ghazzawi's (2008) meta-analysis, the growth in organizational commitment is the outcome of job satisfaction, whereas other studies simply conclude that the existence of a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and commitment to one's organization (Susskind, Borchgrevink, Kacmar, & Brymer, 2000), although, other studies have also found job satisfaction to stem from commitment (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner 2007). Similarly, Adams and Jones (1997), Allen and Meyer (1990), Meyer and Allen (1997), Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), claim that most

researchers agreed the OC suppose be treated as a multidimensional construct. Allen and Meyer (1990) find that three separate dimensions of commitment and more inclusive understanding of the nature of commitment could be achieved when all three are considered concurrently. Allen and Meyer's (1990) proposed three-dimensional approaches which are affective, continuance and normative that explains in detail about the relationship of the employees' psychological attachment to their organization.

2.4.1 Affective Commitment (AC)

Based on Allen and Meyer (1990), in the organizational behavior writing by previous researchers, the most broadly discussed type of psychological attachment is affective commitment, which is based on affective or positive emotional attachment to the organization. In their study of membership behaviors in professional associations, Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000) define this form of commitment as "the magnitude of the member's psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of how favorable he or she feels about the organization"; and Bansal, Irving and Taylor (2004) view it as "a desire-based attachment to the organization."

2.4.2 Continuance Commitment (CC)

Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000) define continuance commitment as the magnitude of the member's psychosomatic attachment to the organization on the foundation of the perceived costs related with leaving it. Many researchers agree that the notion of continuance commitment is according to Becker's (1960) theory of side bets (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Fullerton, 2003; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), in which the employee's reserves (or side bets) in an organization for example on the development of work

friendships, time, energy spent mastering a job skill, political deals, and job efforts that comprise barriers that wane the attractiveness of alternative employment. In addition, various researchers agreed that the side bet theory is reliable with exchange-theory concepts of commitment (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The theory mentioned above describes that commitment is built on the basis of an employee's satisfaction with rewards and inducements from the organization, on the other part, the employee must give up rewards if he or she decides to leave the organization.

2.4.3 Normative Commitment (NC)

The final form of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-dimensional approach is normative commitment. Normative commitment is primarily based on the individual's sense of moral requirement to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000) conceptualize it as the degree of the member's psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of a perceived moral obligation to keep up a current bond with it. Employees' job satisfaction is positively correlated to their normative commitment level mediated by trust. Dubé, Enz, Renaghan and Siguaw (2000) state that employees look for organizations in which they feel trusted and that provide opportunities to work with trusting co-workers and employers. Moorman, Deshpande and Zaltman (1993) find that between individuals, trust exists (interpersonal trust), between organizations (organizational trust), or between individuals and organizations (inter-organizational trust). Subsequently, according to Doney and Cannon (1997) once employees build trust, they have a tendency to perceive obligations and continue the relationship. In their study of employee behavior which is done by Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993), they indicate that normative commitment is supposed to be differentiated from affective commitment by the belief that a sense of duty or obligation

to work in the organization is not necessarily engaged in emotional attachment and differs from continuance commitment by not being necessarily changeable with personal calculations of inducements or perceived costs.

All in all, Allen and Meyer (1990, p. 3) add that “employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they ought to do so.”

2.4.4 Past History of OC

There have been assorted findings about what characteristics influence greater commitment. DeCotis and Summers (1989) argue that a commitment profile does not subsist therefore there can be no link between one’s personal characteristics and their commitment to an organization. On the other hand, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) and Steers (1977) investigate the function of personal characteristics and found that the experiences and characteristics that a person create in an organization can predict their commitment to the organization.

Additionally, Allen and Meyer (1993), Buchanan (1974) and Hall (1977) find a positive relationship between an employee’s age and time with the organization and their level of commitment. DeCotis and Summers (1987) also find that employee characters such as leadership and communication styles have an effect on organizational commitment.

Continuance commitment studies also deal with two antecedents which are investments and alternatives. Studies often look at investments such as money, time or effort. Florkowski and Schuster (1992) find a positive correlation between profit sharing and job satisfaction and commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) discover that in order for the

continuance commitment between the employee and organizations exist, the employee must be able to identify alternatives.

Meyer and Allen (1997) and Perry (1997) find that government employees happen to have higher levels of continuance commitment than other sectors. This is because of the antecedents of public service motivation. Lio (1995) states that “facing today’s difficult times, many public employees appreciate the relatively secure job situation associated with public employment and consider it a major reason for their organizational commitment” (p. 241). Perry (1997) further reiterates that since public sector employees in the earlier period have high levels of commitment to the organization and its goals because it is argued that they are a different type of employee, with strong ethics as well as job security.

Normative commitment does not have a lot of research identified because it is a lately defined type of commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) begin to study normative commitment in their most current research. They look to comprehend the growth of the psychological contract among the employee and the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) define psychological contracts as the beliefs that a person has about what will be exchanged between them, the employee and the organization, therefore influencing their responsibility to the organization.

2.4.5 The Relationship of Managers and OC

Throughout the workplace employees must be given many opportunities to feel committed to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1997) claim that employees who have a good bond with their immediate work group have higher levels of commitment. They discuss the notion that if employees are unswervingly committed to their group it may

lead to a higher commitment to the overall organization. Lio (1995) concludes that “workers’ organizational commitment is significantly correlated to their perceived job security” (p. 241).

The commitment level of employees may be influenced by the management style of the organization. Nierhoff, Enz and Grover (1990) find that the “overall management culture and style driven by the top management actions are strongly related to the degree of employee commitment” (p. 344). Koopman (1991) studies how leadership styles affected employees and found those employees who favored their manager’s style also favored the organization more. Though there was no direct connection between commitments, it could be argued that this would then affect their levels of commitment to the organization. These correlations bring to light the importance of having strong managers and their roles in the overall organization.

Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) discuss that those employees who feel that they are cared for by their organization and managers also have not only higher levels of commitment, but that they are more conscious about their responsibilities, have greater involvement in the organization, and are more innovative. Managers and organizations must reward and support their employees for the work that they do because this perceived support allows for more trust in the organization.

2.4.6 The Expected Relationship of OC and Organizational Effectiveness

It is estimated that several measures of organizational effectiveness would be sensitive to differences in the levels of commitment of the members of the organizations studied. Accordingly, it was presumed that organizations whose members were strongly

committed would have both high participation and high production. Such organizations were therefore likely to show relatively low levels of absence, tardiness, and voluntary turnover, and high levels of operating efficiency. Furthermore, in keeping with the view that committed employees will connect in spontaneous, innovative behaviors on behalf of the organization, it was predicted that, within limits, organizational commitment among the members would facilitate the ability of an organization to adapt to contingencies (Harris & Eoyang, 1977).

Eventually, extreme commitment would probably lead to fanatical behavior, suspension of individual judgment and the like for example the syndrome that Schein (1968) terms "failures of socialization." Conversely, the relationship is presumed to be positive and monotonic over the range of values actually encountered. Campbell, Bownas, Peterson and Dunnette (1974) in view of that while these outcomes are not comprehensive, they are typical of the measures of effectiveness that have appeared in the writing based on the goal model of organizations. It is expected that the relative strong point of the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness might differ depending upon the behaviors to which the employees were dedicated. Harris and Eoyang (1977), building upon Steers' (1977) concept of "active" and "passive" commitment, offer a fourfold typology of commitment as a construct having two bipolar dimensions which are first, commitment, or lack of commitment, to remain with the organization, and second, commitment, or lack thereof, to work in support of organizational objectives. Within such a framework, turnover measures should be more sensitive to the extent to which employees were committed to remaining in the organization.

On the other hand, according to March and Simon (1958) those measures that nearly reflects a decision by organizational members to produce should be more evidently

related to their commitment to exercise effort on behalf of the organization. The second category of indicators includes not only such performance dimensions as service effectiveness and adaptability, but absenteeism and tardiness, as well. Although the term "participation" which is commonly used includes employee behaviors opposite to absenteeism, as well as to turnover, March and Simon (1958) define the term exclusively with respect to turnover.

2.4.7 The Relationship of OC and Job Satisfaction

Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (1997) define job satisfaction as positive feelings that employees have towards their jobs. While George and Jones (1996) and, Moorhead and Griffin (1995) further describe that satisfaction and devotion that employees have towards their jobs. Job satisfaction is an employee's common attitude towards his job (Robbins, 1986) and being served the events and/or elements which an employee attaches importance. In addition, besides individual variables like gender (Vaydonoff, 1980; Hulin & Smith 1967), age (Lee & Wilbur, 1985), marital status, education and personality (King, Michael & Atkinson, 1982) wage (Borjas, 1979), promotion (Jamal & Baba, 1991), working conditions (Near, Smith, Rice, & Hunt, 1984), job and jobs' characteristics (Robbins, 1991); there are also other factors that may affect job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993).

On the word of Meyer, Stanley, Hersecovitch and Topolnytsky (2002), job satisfaction is a determinative of organizational commitment which is mean correlated to each other. The major difference between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is that while organizational commitment can be described as the emotional responses which an employee has towards his organization while job satisfaction is the responses that an employee has towards any job. It is considered that these two variables are highly correlated to each other. In other words, while an employee has positive mind-set

towards the organization including values and objectives, it is possible for him or her to be unsatisfied with the job he or she has in the organization.

2.4.8 The Significant Findings from Past OC Studies

There are several findings of relationship of OC with other elements in the organization.

All the findings by previous researchers will be illustrated on the table below:

Table 2.6: Summary of Previous Researchers Findings Related to OC

Author	Finding
Savicki, Cooley and Gjesvold (2003)	In a study of Northwest correctional officers, there was no variation in affective commitment levels between men and women, but supervisory rewards were positively associated with affective commitment for men, but not women. In addition, work pressure and harassment were inversely linked to affective commitment for women.
Robinson, Porporino and Simourd (1992)	Among Canadian correctional staff, occupancy had a negative relationship on affective commitment and women had higher levels of affective commitment. However, age and both do not have any relationship with affective commitment.
Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnysky (2002)	Organizational commitment is an essential employee attitude, as it has been revealed to be associated to organizational-level outcomes. For instance, organizational commitment has been shown to be associated to turnover.
Hopp and Spearman (2001)	In a manufacturing organization in which the work-related attitudes of production employees are significant to organizational outcomes.
Meyer et al. (2002)	Reported in their findings which revealed a strong correlations between affective commitment and overall job satisfaction ($\rho = 0.65$), extrinsic satisfaction ($\rho = 0.71$) and intrinsic satisfaction ($\rho = 0.68$). These relationships have been revealed to be influenced by cultural context.
Liou (1995), Mowday et al. (1982), Mueller et al. (1992), Paré et al. (2001), Shore and Martin (1989)	Researchers focus on the important relationship between employee commitment and work related outcomes such as turnover, lower absenteeism, greater loyalty to the organization and the degree to which employees will exert greater effort on behalf of an organization.
Larkey and Morrill (1995), Paré et al. (2001)	Highly committed employees exhibit important character such as stability, productivity and are more possible to engage in organizational citizenship behavior (taking on extra role activities), perform better and achieve organizational goals.
Mathieu and Zajac (1990)	Found the true (corrected) correlation between occupational commitment and organizational (attitudinal) commitment to be 0.45.
Lee et al. (2000)	Found the affective organizational commitment and occupational commitment correlation also to be 0.45
Wallace (1995)	Found, for lawyers that the correlation between occupational and organizational commitment was 0.47 when the lawyers worked in professional organizations and only 0.28 when they worked in non-professional organizations.
Wallace (1993)	Found in a moderator analysis the correlation for professionals who manage to be 0.47, whereas it was .29 for professionals who did not manage
Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and	Among various dimensions of organizational commitment, affective commitment has been recognized as the strongest predictor affecting job

Author	Finding
Topolnytsky (2002)	performance.
Park and Rainey (2007)	Affective commitment has been identified as the strongest predictor in affecting job satisfaction and perceived quality of work.
Cohen (1996)	In a study of 238 nurses, the researcher explored the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and the following other types of commitment which are work involvement, job involvement, and career commitment. The findings discovered that affective commitment was more highly interrelated with all the other types of commitment. In short, employees remained with the organization because they wanted to be more probably to display higher levels of commitment to their work, their job, and their career.
Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997)	The researcher investigated the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and the result measures of job satisfaction and turnover intentions have included 232 employees as their participants. Results discovered that job satisfaction was positively related to both affective and normative commitment. On the other hand, job satisfaction was negatively related to continuance commitment. All three types of commitment were negatively related to turnover intentions, with continuance commitment having the strongest negative relationship.

Organizational commitment is a significant powerful variable on an organization. Steers (1977) recommends that organizational commitment is valued for the following reasons: (1) employee turnover can be predicted through organizational commitment, (2) high levels of organizational commitment so that employees will perform better at work and (3) organizational commitment could be the key to predict organizational effectiveness. According to Buchanan (1974), organizational commitment is a psychosomatic state of identifying with an organization. Furthermore, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) further view that the employees' identification with an organization may perhaps be regarded as their psychological affection to the organization. Other researchers suggest that when there is a positive relationship between individuals and their organization (i.e., high level of individual commitment to their organization) it leads to excellent results for individuals, organizations, and society (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

2.4.9 The OC Measure

The most famous instrument that used by most previous researchers is the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) which is primarily established by Mowday et al. (1979, 1982) and then continued by Meyer and Allen (1984) and Allen and Meyer (1990). The total number of response categories that has been used in the studies range from 3 to 7 points.

50 studies report the reliability of the OCQ scale. For these studies, the coefficient alpha range from 0.62 for the 15-item OCQ by Mowday et al. (1982); that is used by Dubinsky, Yammarino, Jolson and Spangler (1995) to a high correlation of 0.92 that is also being used by Koh, Steer and Terborg (1995). For Allen and Meyer (1990) three-dimensional organizational commitment scale, the correlation for:

1. Affective organization commitment ranged from 0.74 to 0.89
2. Continuance organizational commitment ranged from 0.64 to 0.88
3. Normative organizational commitment range from 0.73 to 0.86

2.5 Hypothesis Development

2.5.1 Relationship of OI and OCB

2.5.1.1 Three Paradigm of OI Which May Related in Building OCB in Organization

Cornelissen's (2006) typology of OI perspectives suggests three main paradigms: the essentialist 'social actor' paradigm, the 'social constructionist' paradigm, and the 'linguistic-discursive' paradigm.

2.5.1.1.1 Essentialist Social Actor Paradigm

In the essentialist social actor paradigm, OI is being viewed as an objective property of the organizational entity and comprises reified attributions of what is central, distinctive, and continuous. In this tradition, construal of ‘who the organization is’ treats the organization as incorporated social actors (Whetten & Mackey, 2002; Scott, 2003). Essentialist OI is in use when the important attributes of the organization are described as though they come directly from the organization’s features (Foreman & Whetten, 2002) without an interpreter who has perceived them or an interlocutor who has proclaimed them (Brown & Starkey, 2000; Cheney, 1991; Fox-Wolfgramm, Boal & Hunt, 1998). It is assumed that statements about an OI simply mirror reality; they describe fixed features of the organization (Chreim, 2005) that are not necessarily subject to contest. Essentialist OI is also in use when the organization as an entity in itself is treated as being self-reflexive: ‘OI is a concept that organizations use to characterize aspects of themselves’ (Albert & Whetten, 1985, p. 264). An essentialist paradigm of OI treats these defining characteristics as being ‘of’ the organization as an entity: *in rerum natura* which means “the thing as it is”. Bringing an embodied cognitive perspective to the essentialist social actor paradigm highlights how organization members might experience, assess, appreciate, and possibly manage these concrete, entity-level characteristics in a material, direct, and full-bodied way.

2.5.1.1.2 Social Constructionist Paradigm

In the social constructionist paradigm, OI is conceptualized as a collectively generated and maintained interpretation of ‘who the organization is’. This interpretation is used as a frame to organize and direct collective experience. It is subject to negotiation (Scott & Lane, 2000) and to political influences (Rodrigues & Child, 2008). Claims that one

framing or another should dominate are often supported by arguments about the organization's collective behavior and about what organizational features are more defining than others, with arguments reflecting each particular group's perspective (Coupland & Brown, 2004). In this way, the social constructionist conceptualization of OI is more negotiated than the essentialist conceptualization, and also more anchored and less 'authored' than in the discursive paradigm. Where OI is understood to be a way of collectively framing and interpreting information (Fiol, 2002), individuals are understood to use OI to interpret actions within and by the organization, to set their expectations about the organization's behavior in the future, and to set a reference point to guide their individual actions on the organization's behalf.

2.5.1.1.3 Linguistic-Discursive Paradigm

The linguistic-discursive paradigm focuses on language and its role in constructing rather than mirroring 'reality' (Chreim, 2005). The more linguistic research in this paradigm foregrounds the role of metaphor (Cornelissen, 2006; Heracleous & Jacobs, 2008), categorization (Ran & Duimering, 2007) and naming (Martin, 2002) in constructing OI.

In sum, the most generally used paradigms of OI research highlight language-based positions that assert (1) Albert and Whetten (1985) claim that an objective OI lies waiting to be represented in language; (2) Dutton and Dukerich (1991) also beliefs about organizational processes, structure and experience are represented in verbal descriptions of the organization or (3) that OI is constructed out base from words as part of a language game or contest (Cornelissen, 2006; Czarniawska-Joerges, 1997). Chreim (2005) further claim that OI has been defined generally referring to anything from the shown character of an organization as a 'fixed entity' that is represented or

identified through language to the idea of identity as a discursive product that is constructed through and exists solitary in language.

Through these paradigms, OI is constantly understood as represented through one form or another of verbalized concept. Therefore, a viewpoint such as Embodied Cognition (EC) that addresses and detailed about ‘the limits of language’ or that challenges us to recognize knowledge that extends further than the verbal will clearly have something to say to each of these paradigms on OI.

2.5.2 Relationship of OI and OEB

2.5.2.1 Communicates a Distinctive and Positive Image to Customers

As one of the key organizational resources, Whetten and Godfrey (1998) describe how an organizational identity helps to accomplish organizational competitive advantage. First, OI communicates a distinctive and positive image to consumers and other key constituencies, making significant and positive reputational impacts on an organization which is related to employer branding.

2.5.2.2 Focus on the Most Significant Strategic Issue

Second, organizational identity helps managers focus on the most significant strategic issues by guiding recognition of the most specific set of direct competitors and the most relevant set of agendas in a complex market environment (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998).

2.5.2.3 Guide in Organizational Planning

Third, organizational identity guides an organization's overall resource allocation plans and processes so that it can continue to obtain and develop critical competencies to support and enhance its identity. Finally, OI motivates managers and employees by offering a sense of meaning, purpose, and excitement, resulting in a higher level of commitment and passion for their organizations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Consequently, it is believed that OI is an important firm resource for marketing communication, opportunity identification, development plans, human resource management, and ultimately, high organizational performance (Melewar, 2003). Much research in the general business literature (Elsbach, 1994; Lamertz, Hergens, & Calmet, 2005; Melewar, 2003; Slancik & Meindl, 1984; Van Riel & Balmer, 1997) is available on how OI is related to competitive advantage and performance, and how an organization communicates its identity to stakeholders and manages a positive image in public.

The significance of OI and of cultural issues in internationalization has been noted in other contexts. For example, following the major strategic alliance between Renault of France and Nissan of Japan, when the Brazilian Carlos Ghosn has been brought in by Renault to turn around Nissan in March 1999, he realized that a precursor to his ability to turn around Nissan is the construction of a new and stronger organizational culture. When he assumed his responsibilities at Nissan, Ghosn found that the salient level of cultural identity is the function, rather than the organization, with Nissan suffering from rigid functional silos (Yoshino & Egawa, 2003). He undertakes steps to build a new identity for Nissan, and notes the results that North Americans, Europeans and Japanese working at Nissan became more alike than different. Based on his experiences in

stemming losses and building competitive advantage at Nissan, he concludes (Ghosn, 2002, p. 45; emphasis added):

On the whole, I think Nissan's identity and culture as a company have been far more important factors in its performance than its country of origin, and I think this would be true of most companies. In fact, looking to national culture for an explanation of a company's failure or success almost always means you are missing the point. All that a national culture does is provide the company with the raw human resources for competing. Obviously, if those resources are untrained or the business environment is undeveloped, even the best company can do little. But equally, no matter how promising your resources, you will never be able to turn them into gold unless you get the corporate culture right. A good corporate culture taps into the productive aspects of a country's culture, and in Nissan's case we have been able to exploit the uniquely Japanese combination of keen competitiveness and sense of community that has driven the likes of Sony and Toyota – and Nissan itself in earlier times.

Typically, organizational identity is communicated through self-descriptions resulting from the question “who are we, as an organization” (Albert & Whetten, 1985; Whetten & Mackey, 2002, p. 394). More importantly, many strategic management researchers claim that organizational identity is an important strategic variable for competitive advantages and potentially, organizational performance (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Whetten & Godfrey, 1998).

2.5.2.4 Summarizing the Relationship of OI and OEB

The relationship of OI and OEB can be summarized as shown in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.7: Summary of the Relationship between OI and OEB

Author	Finding
Whetten and Godfrey (1998)	Describe how an organizational identity helps to accomplish organizational competitive advantage: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Organizational identity communicates a distinctive and positive image to consumers and other key constituencies, making significant and positive reputational impacts on organizations 2. Assist managers to concentrate on the most important strategic issues by guiding recognition of the most specific set of direct competitors and the most relevant set of agendas in a multifaceted market environment. 3. Guides an organizations on the whole resource allocation plans and

Author	Finding
	processes so that it can continue to attain and develop vital competencies to sustain and enhance its identity.
	4. Motivates managers and employees by offering a sense of meaning, purpose, and excitement resulting in a higher level of commitment and passion for their organizations
Ashforth & Mael (1989)	A lot of strategic management researchers have claimed that organizational identity is an important strategic variable for competitive advantages and, potentially, organizational performance
Melewar (2003)	Organizational identity is a vital firm resource for marketing communication, opportunity identification, development plans, human resource management, and, ultimately, high organizational performance
Elsbach (1994)	Organizational identity is related to competitive advantage and performance, and how an organization communicates its identity to stakeholders and manages a positive image in public.
Lamertz, Hergens, & Calmet (2005)	
Melewar (2003)	
Slancik & Meindl (1984)	
Van Riel & Balmer (1997)	

2.5.3 Relationship of OCB and OEB

2.5.3.1 The Relationship between OCB and Organizational Characteristics

One of the examples is taken from school organization. Because individuals perform OCB, it is suitable to search for its causes in teachers' personal characteristics. However, teachers who do or do not exhibit OCB do not do so in emptiness, and the organizational context most likely serves to persuade or daunt them (George & Jones, 1997).

George and Bettenhausen (1990) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) initiate that less highly formalized organizations created an atmosphere of group cohesiveness that encouraged employees to engage in OCB, whereas bureaucratically structured organizations created an environment of employees' separation that inhibited OCB. In a similar approach, the study of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), which is conducted in schools, reveals a positive link between an open and collegial climate and OCB in teachers. Accordingly, employees' culture perception derives both from their

perceptions of their environment and from the ways they cognitively assess it through schemas derived from work-related values (James & James, 1989).

2.5.3.2 Individual-Collectivism

According to Wagner (1995), individualism-collectivism is a systematic dimension that captures the relative importance people concurrence to personal interests and shared pursuits. Individualistic cultures highlight self-reliance, autonomy, control, and priority of personal goals, which may or may not be consistent with in-group goals. Numerous researchers have suggested that much of the complexity of culture can be modeled by assuming that cultures are differ along a number of dimensions (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995), whereas theorists (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Triandis, 1995) have stated that individualism-collectivism as a major dimension of cultural deviation. An individual feels proud of his or her own actions and derives satisfaction from performance based on his or her own achievements.

On the other hand, in collective cultures people will subordinate their personal interests to the goals of their in-group. An individual belongs to only a few in-groups, and behavior within the group highlights their goal attainment, cooperation, and group welfare and harmony. Hence, enjoyment and satisfaction derive from group accomplishment (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002; Triandis, 1995). By taking into consideration about the implications of these differences suggests that the difference in individualism-collectivism should influence personal tendencies to engage in OCB. Meanwhile, Bontempo, Lobel and Triandis (1990) posit that a collectivistic orientation is articulated in strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity and solidarity between members of the same group, and people in this culture experience greater in-group regulation of behavior and a sensitive sense of duty to the in-group, as compared with individualistic

members. George and Jones (1997) confirm that when teachers perceive their organizational culture as collectivistic, they may be expected to value collaboration; when they perceive their school as individualistic, they may value competition. Therefore, helping colleagues will be encouraged by the former perception and discouraged by the latter, because valuing collectivism may improve social responsibility values that support the dispersion of goodwill, while individualism may be more inwardly focused.

2.5.3.3 The Relationship between OCB and Individual Characteristic in Organization

Podsakoff et al. (2000) discover two major categories of individual characteristics which are employees' attitudes and dispositional variables. The employee attitudes category, which has been scrupulously treated in research, suggests a vital connection between OCB and satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Lee & Allen, 2002), organizational commitment (Vanyperen, Van den Berg & Willering, 1999), perceptions of equality (Folger, 1993; Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993), perceptions of organizational/supervisor support (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann & Birjulin, 1999), and intrinsic and extrinsic work attitudes (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of dispositional variables are affectivity (George, 1990), agreeableness (Konovsky & Organ, 1993) and preciseness (Organ & Ryan, 1995).

2.5.3.4 The Relationship between OCB and Other Aspects in Organization

2.5.3.4.1 Perceived Supervisor Support

Supervisors act as agents of the organization, having responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates' performance, employees view their supervisor's positive or

adverse orientation towards them as an indication that the organization favors or disfavors them. On the basis of social exchange principles and reciprocity norms (Blau, 1964), individuals will try to reciprocate those who benefit them. Perceived superior support is also appreciated as guarantee that assistance is available from the supervisor when it is desirable to carry out one's job efficiently and to deal with tense situations (Randall et al., 1999). Supportive supervisors are seen as taking pride in their employees, compensating them fairly, and looking after their needs (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Additionally, Organ's (1988) view on the issue is that employees infer equality to mean that their supervisors can be trusted to protect their interests; this in turn engenders an obligation to repay their supervisors through "positive" beneficial actions. Accordingly, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization and/or its representatives contribute to the formation of high-quality exchange relationships that oblige employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways (Lambert, 2000).

2.5.3.4.2 Affectivity

Affectivity, also known as mood, is a personality structure that represents invasive and generalized affective states (Clark & Isen, 1982; George, 1990). Affectivity is not directed at a particular target but concerns the naturally occurring state of feeling that people experience.

The conceptual basis for predicting a relationship between affectivity and OCB derives from the social psychology experiments, which strongly affirm a connection between positive affectivity and OCB (Rosenham, Salovey & Hargis, 1981). One explanation is that employees with positive affectivity may be more likely to perceive situations and other workers in a more positive light (George, 1990). This increases attraction to others and generally favorable outlook may influence employees to exhibit behaviors that

benefit organization members, enhance organizational outcomes, or both. In addition, positive affectivity may lead to increased social awareness, such that employees will be more willing to display prosocial behaviors and, hence, may exhibit OCB as a means of protecting or prolonging their positive emotional state (Isen & Baron, 1991; Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Regarding the link between negative affectivity and OCB, studies generally, but not entirely consistently, reveal the opposite of the conclusion above that negative affectivity tends to curb or reduce unselfish or helping gestures (Agho, Price, & Mueller, 1992).

Individuals high in negative affectivity are generally more likely to have a negative view of themselves, others, and the world around them and to take to mean uncertain stimuli negatively. George (1990) further said that such individuals tend to boost the psychological distance between self and others and, hence, to diminish their willingness to show helping and pro-social acts.

2.5.3.4.3 Job Satisfaction

There is substantial support for the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Job satisfaction is agreeable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976). For instance, Bateman and Organ (1983) originate a significant relationship between general measures of job satisfaction and supervisory ratings of citizenship behavior. There is also significant relationship between pro-social behavior and satisfaction with material rewards (Puffer, 1987). Organ (1988), Organ and Konovsky (1989) argue for and provided empirical proof to support the relationship between satisfaction and OCB, as well as Williams and Anderson (1991) has done. Moorman (1993) find support for the relative significance of cognitive job satisfaction over affective job satisfaction in predicting the OCB. Based

on the finding of Organ and Lingl (1995) they confirm that the whole job satisfaction yielded a significant additional in the OCB dimension of altruism, but not in the fulfillment dimension of OCB.

Based on both Middle Eastern and American samples, Tang and Ibrahim (1998) confirm that intrinsic job satisfaction was absolutely related to altruism. In a sample of Australian human-service professionals, job satisfaction is positively associated with OCB to a level that indicates a medium to strong relationship (Murphy, Athanasou, & King, 2002). Public employees who are totally satisfied with their jobs may want to have good relationships with others, want to attain excellent job performance, and keep on working at the office. That is, they want their organization to be a better place to work, now and in the future. They may be not only more anxious about the outcome of their task execution and worried about whether policy goals are achieved, but also they are more concerned about the task completion of co-workers and organizational success. Hence, they may willingly help others with work-related problems, support others in the organization to attain job performance, and take on additional roles, particularly in the collectivistic culture.

2.5.3.4.4 Organizational Commitment

Mowday et al. (1979, p. 226) describe OC as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in an organization”. Angle and Perry (1981) identify two subscales: value commitment, which reflected a commitment to prop up organizational goals, and commitment to stay, which reflected a desire to sustain organizational membership. On behalf of something beyond mere inert loyalty to an organization, commitment includes an active relationship with the organization, such that individuals are willing to give something of them in order to contribute to the

organization's well-being. Hence, commitment could be inferred not only from the expressions of an individual's beliefs and opinions but also from his or her actions (Mowday et al., 1979). Meyer and Allen (1984) use the terms affective commitment and continuance commitment, to determine the attitudinal and behavioral views of commitment, respectively. Meyer and Allen (1991) identify the three components of organizational commitment as affective, continuance, and normative commitments. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. O'Reilley and Chatman (1986) also develop a scale to measure three definitions of commitment, which are compliance, identification, and internalization commitment. Balfour and Wechsler (1996) propose the three dimensions of organizational commitment as affiliation, identification, and exchange commitment. OC is a possible determinant of OCB. This statement is supported by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) which they find that identification is a significant predictor of self-reports of generalized compliance behaviors and that identification and internalization were significant predictors of self-reports of extra-role compliance behaviors. The meta-analysis that is conducted by Organ and Ryan (1995) reveals that affective organizational commitment is extensively related to both the altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB. Bolon (1997) shows that affective commitment is the most important commitment component in terms of explaining unique variance in OCB. Moreover, Schappe (1998) hierarchical regression analyses indicate that when job satisfaction, organizational commitment and fairness perceptions are considered concurrently, only organizational commitment accounted for a distinctive total of variance in OCB. Meyer et al. (2002) find that among three dimensions of commitment, affective commitment has the strongest positive

relationship with OCB, followed by normative commitment, but continuance commitment is unrelated to OCB.

On the other hand, Williams and Anderson (1991) in their research find that OC is not related to either form of OCB, and Tansky (1993) find no significant positive relationships between OC and five OCB dimensions. Public employees' emotional and psychological attachment to government may contribute to the achievement of policy objectives. Public employees with strong affective commitments are more likely to make a high effort on behalf of the government and help others with organizationally relevant task. They will willingly search for ways to contribute to boost the quality of job performance and to innovate task-performing processes, with no reward. Hence, it is likely to assume that affective commitment will be positively related to OCB.

2.5.3.4.5 Organizational Socialization

According to Louis (1980), organizational socialization is the process by which an individual comes to understand the values, abilities, expected behaviors and social knowledge that are essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organization member. Organizational history, language and symbols, values, and goals are crucial content in this process. Chatman (1991) acknowledges that the main outcome of organizational socialization is person-organization fit in culture and values. Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein and Gardner (1994) find six socialization dimensions – performance proficiency, politics, language, people, organizational values and goals, and history by a factor analysis. Hatch (1993) and Schein (1993) further view that values and goals are essential contents of organizational culture; and ritual, language, symbols and traditions are the artifacts of organizational culture.

Meanwhile, Schein (1968) posits that history socialization is a process of learning traditions, customs, myths, and rituals in an organization. Knowledge of history, as well as knowledge about the personal backgrounds of certain organizational members, can help individuals come to understand what types of behaviors are suitable or unsuitable in specific communications and conditions.

In addition, language socialization not only transmits a profession's technical language but also involves acronyms, slang and jargon that are unique to the organization. A certain base knowledge of organizational language is the basic of effective communication with other members, and acquisition of organization-specific language is one of the indicators of a certain organization member.

Values and goals socialization consist of an understanding of the rules or principles that maintain the integrity of the organization (Schein, 1968). Chao et al. (1994) further view that newcomers come to understand unspoken rules, norms and inform networks in this process. Socialization is not only an important issue for organizational newcomers, but it is important for established organizational members as well. Various and continuous socialization tactics related to values and culture will be applied to keep control of employees.

In essence, management on organizational culture is a constant process of values socialization. OCB is individual behavior that is optional, not directly or unambiguously recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Katz, 1964; Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1988). Studies on OCB mainly focused on perceived organizational support (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997), leader-member exchange (Liden & Graen, 1980) which is premised on social exchange theory. Although Saks and Ashforth (1997) include OCB in their organizational socialization model as an individual level outcome, in fact, OCB has not

been tested in previous organizational socialization research. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006) propose that values and goals socialization is completely related with extra-role performance (includes OCB), and they believe extra-role performance is strongly related to an individual's learning from colleagues, supervisors and mentors.

In fact, a high level of values and goals, history, and language socialization will encourage a common understanding and internalization of organizational values and goals, which motivate employees to perform OCB for personal and organizational goals. Subsequently, socialization contributes to the employees' understanding of organizational tradition and languages, thus helping employees communicate with co-workers and supervisors better, hence promoting the learning of OCB limitations, co-worker extra-role performance norms, and supervisor's actual performance criteria. Therefore, not only the internalization of organizational values and goals will promote an individual's OCB, pursuing a better evaluation and future career development may convey the individual's OCB as well.

2.5.3.4.6 Customer Oriented Service Employee Behavior

Organ (1988) agrees that the definition of OCB behaviors is highly descriptive of many customer-contact employees' service behaviors. The first trait of OCB is that the behavior is non-mandated. Many aspects of services require non-mandated employee behaviors that can be significant to customer service. Service delivery behaviors often entail personal interactions. These interactions, be they concise or extended, develop relationships with customers that help employees understand customers' needs, may in some cases enable the service to be customized, and in small or large ways, make customers feel important. However the precise specification for a job description of how to interact with customers is complicated. While some behaviors can be explicitly

defined (e.g. call the customer by his/her first name), many others are more abstract and are dependent on employee attitudes and motivations (e.g. make the customer happy, make the customer feel at home). Moreover, Bienstock, DeMoranville and Smith (2003) agree that to promote positive interaction, employees must keep in a constellation of behaviors, some of which are difficult to specifically mandate.

Next, Bienstock et al. (2003) posit that a second trait of OCB is that the behavior arises from an independent individual plan and research has shown that independent individual's initiatives on the part of the service provider affects customer satisfaction.

The final trait of OCB is that the behavior contributes to the most excellent benefit of the organization. "When interacting with customers, contact employees often can choose from a variety of responses with varying levels of contribution to customer satisfaction and organizational benefits. Obviously, service firms want their contact employees to choose behaviors and solutions that are in the best interests of the organization, in other words, show the organizational citizenship behaviors. It appears then that OCB behaviors can positively affect successful service delivery and, in fact, are those types of behaviors that lead to delivery of service according to organizational requirements", resulting in enhanced customer service (Bienstock et al., 2003).

2.5.3.5 Summary of the Relationship of OCB with Other Aspects in Organization Including OEB

The relationship between OCB and other aspects in organization including OEB can be summarized, as shown in Table 2.8.

**Table 2.8: Summary of the Relationship of OCB with Other Aspects in
Organization Including OEB**

Aspect	Author	Argument
Perceive Organization Support	Eisenberger et al. (2002)	Supportive supervisors are seen as taking pride in their employees, compensating them fairly, and looking after their needs
	Blau (1964)	On the basis of social exchange principles and reciprocity norms, individuals will try to reciprocate those who benefit them.
	Randall et al. (1999)	Perceived superior support is also appreciated as a guarantee that assistance is available from the supervisor when it is desirable to carry out one's job efficiently and to deal with tense situations.
Affectivity	Organ (1988)	Employees infer equality to mean that their supervisors can be trusted to protect their interests; this in turn engenders an obligation to repay their supervisors through "positive," beneficial actions
	Rosenham, Salovey, Karylowski, & Hargis (1981)	The theoretical basis for predicting the association between affectivity and OCB derives from the social psychology experiments, which strongly confirm a connection between positive affectivity and OCB.
	George (1996)	One explanation is that employees with positive affectivity may be more likely to observe situations and other workers in a more positive light.
Job Satisfaction	George (1990)	Negatively affective individuals tend to boost the psychological distance between self and others and, hence, to diminish their willingness to show help and pro-social acts.
	Locke (1976)	Job satisfaction is agreeable or is a positive emotional state resulting from the assessment of one's job or job experiences.
	Moorman (1993)	Found support for the relative significance of cognitive job satisfaction over affective job satisfaction in predicting the OCB.
	Organ and Lingl (1995)	
	Tang and Ibrahim (1998)	They confirmed that the whole job satisfaction yielded a significant additional in the OCB dimension of altruism, but not in the fulfillment dimension of OCB.
	Murphy et al. (2002)	Based on both Middle Eastern and American samples, the researchers confirmed that intrinsic job satisfaction was absolutely related to altruism.
Organizational Commitment	Mowday et al. (1979)	In a sample of Australian human-service professionals, job satisfaction is positively associated with OCB to a level that indicates a medium to a strong relationship.
	Meyer & Allen (1984)	Commitment could be inferred not only from the expressions of an individual's beliefs and opinions but also from his or her actions.
	Meyer & Allen (1991)	Used the terms affective commitment and continuance commitment, to determine the attitudinal and behavioral views of commitment, respectively.
	O'Reilly & Chatman (1986)	Has identified the three components of organizational commitment as affective, continuance, and normative commitments
	Organ & Ryan (1995)	Found that identification was a significant predictor of self-report of generalized compliance behaviors, and that identification and internalization were significant predictors of self-reports of extra-role compliance behaviors.
	Bolon (1997)	
	Meyer et al. (2000)	The meta-analysis that was conducted revealed that affective organizational commitment was extensively

Aspect	Author	Argument
Organizational Socialization		related to both the altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB.
	Louis (1980)	Showed that affective commitment is the most important commitment component in terms of explaining unique variance in OCB.
	Hatch (1993) and Schein (1992)	Found that among three dimensions of commitment, affective commitment has the strongest positive relationship with OCB.
	Schein (1968)	Organizational socialization is the process by which an individual comes to understand the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge that are essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organization member.
	Cooper-Thomas & Anderson (2006)	Said that values and goals are essential contents of organizational culture, and ritual, language, symbols and traditions are artifacts of organizational culture.
	Katz (1964), Smith et al. (1983), Organ (1988)	Values and goals socialization consist of an understanding of the rules or principles that maintain the integrity of the organization.
	Ge, Su & Zhou, (2010)	Proposed that values and goals socialization is completely related with extra-role performance (includes OCB), and they believed extra-role performance is strongly related to individual's learning from colleagues, supervisor and mentor.
Customer Oriented Service Employee Behavior		OCB is individual behavior that is optional, not directly or unambiguously recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization
	Organ (1988)	High level of values and goals, history, and language socialization will encourage a common understanding and internalization of organizational values and goals, which motivate employees to perform OCB for personal and organizational goals.
	Bienstock et al. (2003, p. 362)	The definition of OCB behaviors is highly descriptive of many customer-contact employees' service behaviors. The first trait of OCB is that the behavior is non-mandated. Many aspects of services require non-mandated employee behaviors that can be significant to customer service. Service delivery behaviors often entail personal interactions. To promote positive interaction, employees must keep in a constellation of behaviors, some of which are difficult to specifically mandate. A second trait of OCB is that the behavior arises from independent individual plan and research has shown that independent individual initiatives on the part of the service provider affect customer satisfaction. The final trait of OCB is that the behavior contributes to the most excellent benefit of the organization.

2.5.4 Relationship of OEB and OC

2.5.4.1 Characteristic of Employer Branding Which May Lead to OC

According to the Corporate Leadership Council (CLC), there are major attributes for employee value propositions (EVPs) provided by an employer brand that will lead attraction, others that drive commitment, and three that influence both. A strong employer brand is thought to increase an organization's ability to not only attract, but also to keep and engage people (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Ambler & Barrow, 1996).

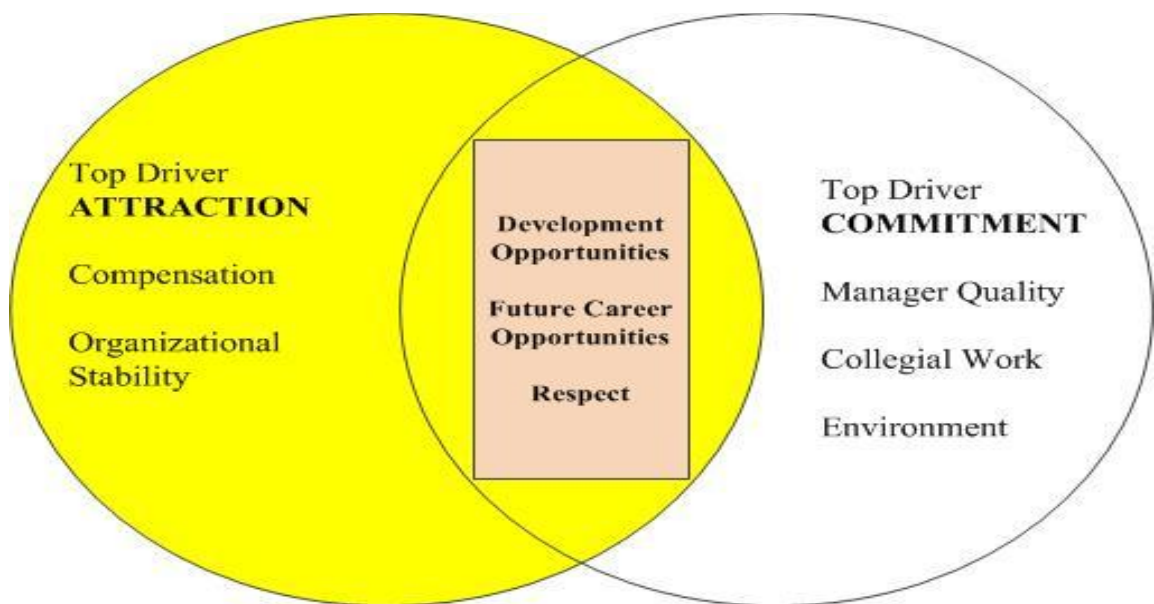


Figure 2.1: Core EVP Attributes across All Major Talent Segments adopted from Corporate Leadership Council (2006)

Joo and Mclean (2006) suggest that an academic literature about the best employer studies is associated with the CLC research and suggest that the key attributes to be *an employer of choice* can be reduced to a few common factors: learning and development opportunities, career growth opportunities and culture and work environment. In general, it is clear that these employer brands attributes, if delivered as promised, contribute the most positive reputation as a workplace in a firm.

2.5.4.2 The Importance of OEB that Lead to OC

Until the late twentieth century most people would have only associated the term brand with consumer goods and services. Nowadays, the term is used far more widely and it is common for it to be used to describe virtually anything that carries a distinct identity, and the reputation, good or bad, associated with that identity (Barrow & Mosley, 2006). It has been suggested that companies with strong employer brands can potentially reduce the cost of talent acquisition, improve employee relations, increase employee retention and even offer lower salaries for comparable staff (Ritson, 2002). Practitioner authors agree that long-term corporate success and an organization's prosperity depends on how well the firm is able to target, manage, motivate and develop talented people (Cheese, Thomas & Craig, 2008).

Most companies understand the primary importance of engaging employee commitment in delivering customer satisfaction and loyalty. To this end, companies must create a work environment in which employees feel a sense of pride, achievement and unity. Engaged employees (particularly those in customer-facing roles) must project a positive corporate image, which enables their organization to succeed. Barrow (2005) views that in this way, employer brands also support an organization's ability to convey a consistent customer brand experience. In addition, organizations with a strong workplace reputation have an easier time developing, attracting, and retaining quality people, leading to improved performance and continued success. Employer brand can in fact be used to define, manage and deliver all the elements including an employee's experience at work. Whether labeled Human Resources (HR) or Talent Management, people management involves a broad range of processes that can be described as employee *touch points*. Mosely (2007) states that these touch points occur in a relatively predictable order that includes the employee experience and provide the way for

delivery of the employer brand attributes which are recruitment, on boarding, employee communication, shared services (such as benefits administration and facilities), rewards, performance management, and employee learning and development and also measurement (i.e. employee engagement surveys).

2.5.4.3 The Employer Branding Commitment Ladder that may contribute to OC among Employees

Ambler and Barrow (1996) simplify employer brand commitment into five different stages, which is presented in a form of a ladder as illustrated above. Within area four and five high brand equity can be identified. Once loyalty of employees in the organization is achieved, a company has successfully managed its employer brand. In this context, it is vital to consider that stage four and five on the ladder are associated with the identification theory. It can therefore be argued that employees, who can identify with their company, are more probably to establish brand equity towards their employers.

However, benefits are not influencing factors in achieving each stage. Several studies outlined that pay and benefits are by far not the most important criteria in influencing an employee's experience towards their work. Even though unfair salaries reduce people's morale, Herzberg (1968) argues that this does not mean that fat pay checks will increase motivation. In fact, the interesting part is that challenging work can do that. Emotional engagement is currently a popular subject in the world of work, and the psychological benefits related with employer brands are just as essential as they are to branded products and services.

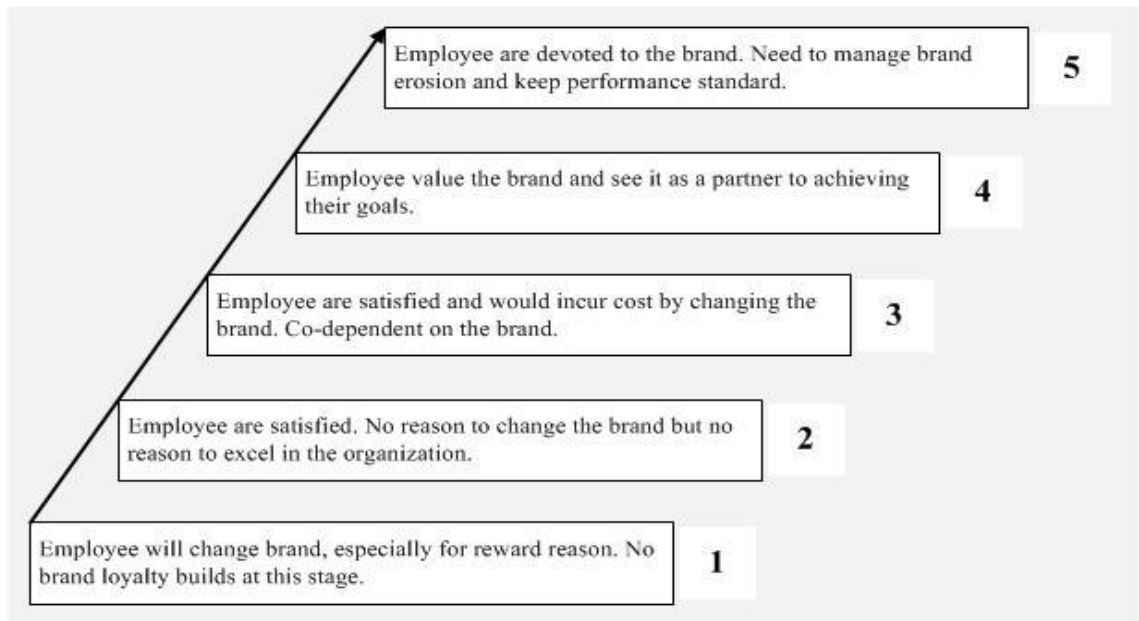


Figure 2.2: The Employer Branding Commitment Ladder that may Contribute to OC among Employees adopted from Ambler (2003)

2.6 The Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework that will be used in this study is illustrated in Figure 2.3. The framework is based on Organizational Employer Branding (OEB) as the mediating variable of the study. Two independent variables will be measured according to their relationship with OEB which are Organizational Identity (OI) and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). Throughout this chapter, the relationships between the independent variables and dependent variables have been discussed and argued based on previous researcher perception. All the notion of previous researcher has been compiled to support the linkages (relationships) among those variables and the outcome will be the Organizational Commitment (OC).

For the purpose of this study, three OI dimensions, namely: membership, loyalty and similarity are used. As for OCB dimensions, five dimensions comprising altruism,

courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue are used. OEB is represented by brand awareness, brand image, brand quality, brand loyalty, brand value and brand meaning which are the adaptations of product brand equity dimensions. OC is represented by affective, normative and continuance. Figure 2.3 shows the relationships of the constructs.

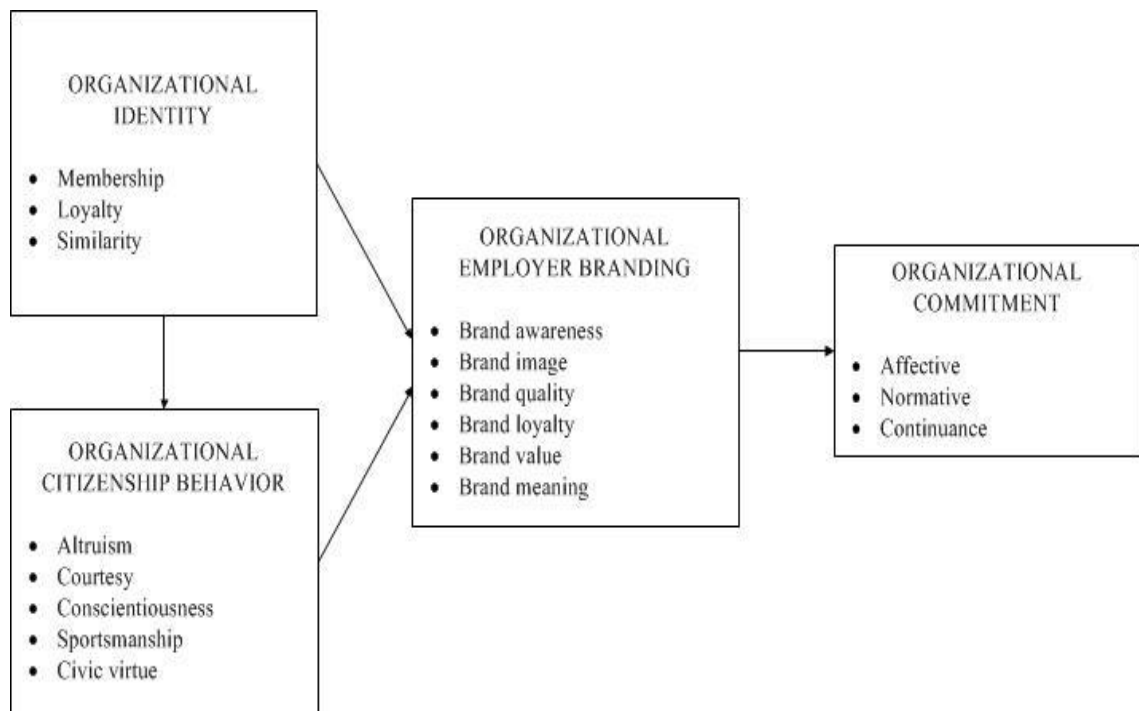


Figure 2.3: Conceptual Framework

2.6.1 Research Propositions

The conceptual framework of the study shows the relationship discussed in the above review. Below is the list of propositions of the study:

Proposition 1: Employees with different dimensions of OI are related to different dimensions of OCB

Proposition 2: Employees with different dimensions of OI are related to different dimensions of OEB

Proposition 3: Employees with different dimensions of OCB are related to different dimensions of OEB

Proposition 4: The degree of OEB will have an impact on the OC

Proposition 5: The degree of OI and OCB will have an impact on the OEB

Proposition 6: The degree of OCB mediates the relationship between OI and OEB

Proposition 7: The degree of OI, OCB and OEB will have an impact on the OC

2.7 Chapter Summary

Based on the review of literature, the conceptual framework is developed. The purpose is to examine the dynamism inherent in the relationship between four constructs, namely OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the research methodology of the study in three parts. Firstly, the research design, research instrument and techniques used in the sampling are discussed. Next, the operationalization of the constructs used in the study is presented. Finally, the validity and reliability assessment of the constructs are discussed.

PART 1: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

Research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting the research project that details the procedures necessary for obtaining information needed to solve research problems (Malhotra, 2006). The aim is to make certain that any information gathered is appropriate to solve the problem (Zikmund, 2003). Subsequently, Cooper and Emory (1995) state that there are three purposes for having a research design.

The first purpose is that it provides a detailed plan to select the sources and types of information to be used in addressing the primary research problem. Next, the research design explains the link between the variables that are investigated and finally, it is used to discuss and interpret the development of the propositions, hypotheses and data analysis. The different stages of the research design are shown in Figure 3.1.

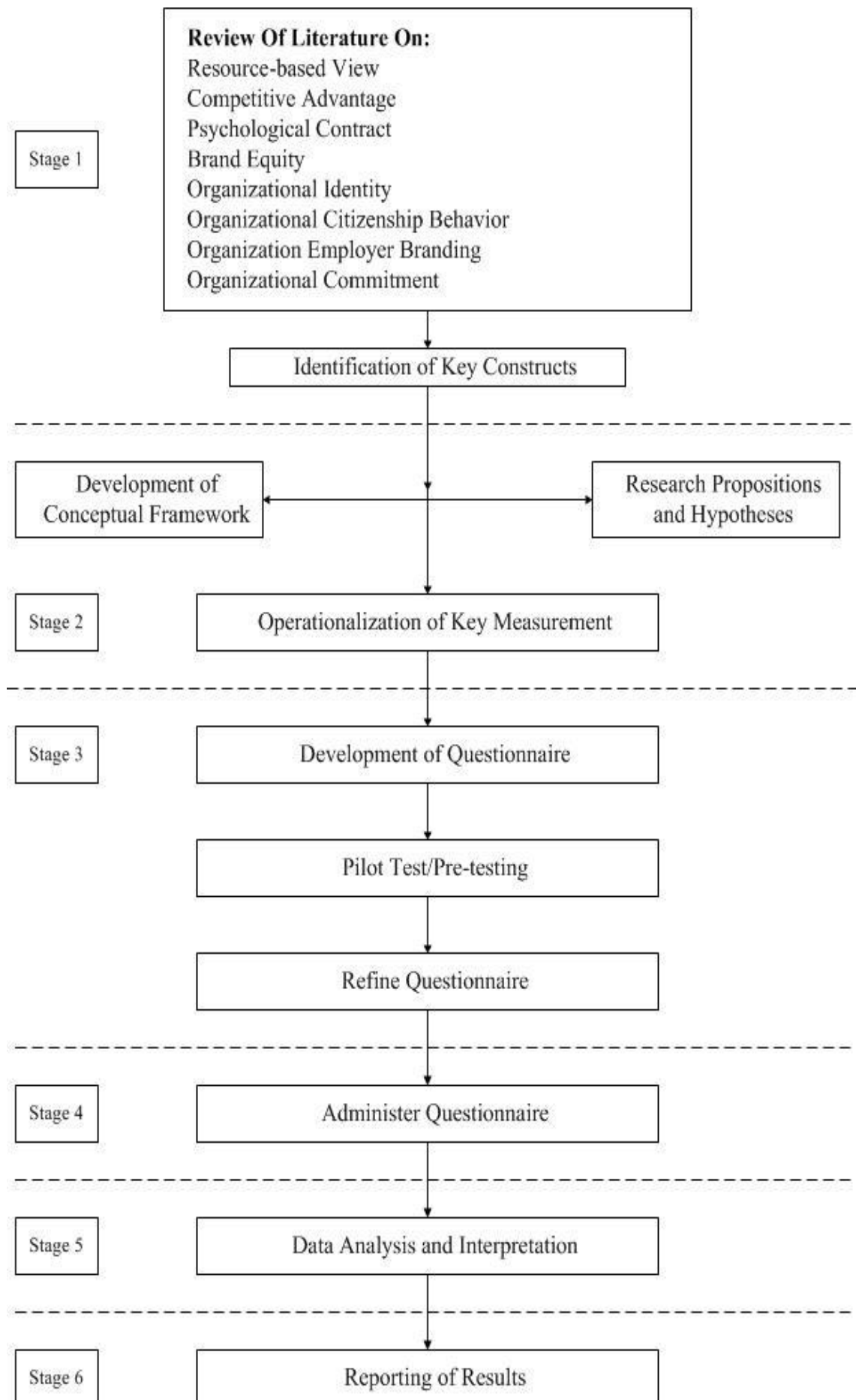


Figure 3.1: Research Design

Accordingly, extensive literature on the constructs, namely brand equity, organizational identity (hereinafter OI), organizational citizenship behavior (hereinafter OCB), organizational employer branding (hereinafter OEB), and organizational commitment (hereinafter OC), were carried out so that there would be a detailed understanding of these constructs. Further, based on the literature review, the conceptual framework was developed, followed by the propositions and the hypotheses. In addition, a preliminary design of the questionnaire was considered to indicate that this study is based on a cross-sectional format and intends to provide conclusive findings that will help managers make better decisions to improve the performance of their respective organizations.

Pre testing was employed and the feedback provided helped in the refining of the questionnaires before being distributed to the respondents. Then, the questionnaire was forwarded to the respondents and the responses were analyzed, interpreted and results reported.

3.1.1 Unit of Analysis

Sekaran and Bougie (2010) posit that a unit of analysis refers to the level of aggregation of the data that is collected during the data analysis stage. This includes the entire organization, department, work groups and the individuals. To determine a unit of analysis is easy and this must be done at the beginning of the study because determining the variables for the conceptual framework, appropriate methods of data collection, and sample size are dependent on this analysis (Zikmund, 2003).

This study decides on the employees of hotel organizations in Malaysia only as the unit of analysis. This is because the International Labor Organization (2003) warns that a

shortage of skilled employees and a low worker commitment are the most frequently cited problems faced by the hospitality industry in the trade and by industry practitioners. It is an advantage to have a study on how to retain the employees in the hotel sector through the execution of organizational employer branding. In fact, this is particularly meaningful given the relatively new topics that are being discussed and researched by this study (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004).

3.1.1.1 Key Informant

The questionnaire was addressed to the employees of the hotel through the head of the HR department. These targeted informants were chosen as the main objective of this study is to find how employees find their workplace to be a good place to work.

3.2 Research Instrument

In order to gather relevant data for the study, a set of questionnaires were used. Also from the literature review, established measures from the related fields were incorporated in the questionnaire to evaluate the constructs in the study, namely, OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

3.2.1 Scaling of Measurement

Questionnaires with close-ended questions were utilized as research instrumentation. All questions in parts 1 to 4 were developed using a seven-point Likert scale with the purpose of eliciting respondent's agreement on OI, OCB, OEB and OC. Part 5 of the questionnaire was used to obtain the profiles of the respondents. For the purpose of data

interpretation, the descriptive phrases for the main side of the seven-point scale are (7) “strongly agree”, (6) “agree”, (5) “slightly agree”, (4) “neutral” (3) “slightly disagree”, (2) “moderately disagree”, and (1) “strongly disagree”. The scale with a neutral response in the middle is the most commonly used in a research paper (Malhotra, 2006; Moser & Kalton, 1993; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

The Likert scale was employed in order to present the questions to the respondents. Due to its easy construction, quick completion and uncomplicated measuring, a numerical Likert scale is often used (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Furthermore, Malhotra (2006) states that it is easier for the respondents to understand and they enjoy filling in this type of scale.

3.2.2 Questionnaire Structure and Sequencing

The questionnaire was divided into five different sections with a specific heading for each section. In addition, instructions were stated clearly and precisely for the respondents. The final section included the profile of the respondent as this data is considered to be personal (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Part 1 consisted of 25 questions on OI. The purpose of this section is to find out the OI dimensions perceived by the employees in the Malaysian hotel industry. Part 2 comprised of 45 questions to evaluate the OCB dimensions by the employees. Part 3, which contained 30 items, discussed the OEB dimensions. In some cases, the items were represented in negative wordings in order to check the alertness of the respondents. Part 4 comprised of 30 questions to evaluate the OC dimensions by the employees. Finally, there are 7 questions in part 5. These questions are related to the

personal background of the respondents. (Please refer to Appendix A for the questionnaire used in this study).

3.3 Pre Testing

Pre testing of a questionnaire is for improvement and it is done by identifying and eliminating potential problems. Malhotra (2006) proposes that the respondents in the pre-test should be similar to those who will be included in the actual study in terms of background characteristics, familiarity of the topic, and the attitudes and behaviors of interest. Nevertheless, measurement errors often results in the way questions are asked and framed in a questionnaire and this may impede respondents from answering correctly (Dillman, 1991). Thus, a pre-test is conducted to:

1. Check the face and content validity of the questionnaire
2. Inspecting the question content, wording and sequence,
3. Check for its form and layout,
4. Look at the questions difficulty and instructions.

During the pre-test exercise, the questionnaire was distributed to colleagues in the Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA. This is to obtain feedback on the layout, arrangement of content and wording in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was then sent to an English professional editor to check on the phrasing, the flow of the sentences and the overall use of the language. Subsequently, the questionnaire was revised and refined based on the feedback received before sending it for pre-testing in the hotel industry.

For the pre-test, thirty employees from hotels in Shah Alam took part in the study. The questions were based on the following:

1. The structure and design of the questionnaire, including the layout, spacing, font size and design.
2. The directions given and the body of the questionnaire
3. The appropriateness and simplicity of the language used
4. The duration of time to answer all questions in the questionnaire.
5. The flexibility and flow of the sentences.

The feedback and comments obtained from the employees were gathered and constructively commented before the changes were made. Listed below is a list of the feedback and the actions taken to improve the quality of the questionnaire:

1. Some questions were redundant, repetitive and lengthy. Therefore, the structure of some questions was improved and long winded questions were shortened.
2. For certain questions, the choice of words was vague, fragmented or unclear for the proper understanding of the employees. Thus, changes were made by incorporating many of the suggested words.

Based on the feedback, necessary amendments were made to the questionnaire before it was used in the actual field work. All in all, the employees took about 25 to 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

3.4 Sampling Procedures

The samples consisted of employees in 3-star to 5-star hotels in Malaysia with the geographical area from north, central, south and east coast of Peninsular Malaysia as well as East Malaysia. Depending on the total numbers of employees at each hotel, approximately 60 to 65 questionnaires were mailed to each hotel. 3, 4 and 5-star hotels were chosen as those properties most likely to be operating in the full fledged operation

departments like food and beverage, front office and housekeeping. It is also the sector of the hotel industry where the widest range of skills (technical, technological, emotional, aesthetic) are likely to be required in the workplace (Baum & Devine, 2007).

Systematic sampling was used in this research. Since the population frame is large, and a listing of the elements is conveniently available at one place which is the Malaysian Association of Hotels (MAH) database, then a systematic sampling procedure will offer the advantages of ease and quickness in developing the sample (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

These hotels were selected from the MAH member's directory. For the purpose of this study, operational employee is defined as full-time hotel employees, who have been employed for more than six months and attached to the front office, housekeeping, food production, and food and beverage service departments.

The members' directory provided by the MAH has complete information on the hotel organizations across Malaysia such as addresses, contact numbers, types of hotels and star ratings.

Using 1000 employees as the samples was considered necessary as it will provide valid responses in the range of 15% to 20%, or approximately 159 to 200 responses. Other factors that determined the samples included sufficient data to run the Structural Equation Modeling and time constraints on the part of the researcher in implementing the survey. These factors correspond with the factors recommended by Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) in determining the sample size. The sample size for this study was also determined by following the rule of thumb provided by Roscoe (1975). He suggested that the rule of thumb for determining sample size in multivariate research is that the sample size should be several times (preferable 10 times or more) as

large as the number of variables in the study (Roscoe, 1975). Thus, with the total number of the items in the variable subscales, which is 130 items, it was considered appropriate for the required sample size to be around 1000 to 1300 respondents.

3.5 Questionnaire Administration

The data collection for this study was primarily done through the structured questionnaire. This questionnaire, accompanied by a cover letter, was mailed to the head of the human resource department at the hotels of the 1000 employees who were the samples. There were four hotels from north Peninsular Malaysia, four hotels from central Peninsular Malaysia, four hotels from south Peninsular Malaysia, four hotels from east coast of Peninsular Malaysia and two hotels each from Sabah and Sarawak. The questionnaire was presented in a booklet, comprising 12 double-sided pages. The cover letter appeared on the first page and it described the nature of the research, introduced the researcher and the supervisor as well as a request for the full cooperation from the employees. Furthermore, it stated the objectives of the study, the contribution of the study and the duration to complete the questionnaire. The respondents were also informed about the confidentiality of the study and reassured that only the researcher and the supervisor would have access to the information given and that all reports of the study would only be presented in aggregate. The human resource managers of the different hotels were asked to provide their contact numbers if they wanted to receive a copy of the summary of this study.

Before the questionnaires were posted, the organizations were first contacted to enquire on their willingness to participate. To facilitate the response to the survey, stamped return envelopes were included with the questionnaires and sent to the 20 hotels. The questionnaires were posted in early February 2009. The respondents were given 14 days

to return the questionnaire. This took into account delays in posting and the receipt of the questionnaire nation-wide. A follow up call and reminder letter ensued after a period of one month in cases where there was no response.

3.6 Response Rate

The data collection took about one month to complete. It started in early February and ended in early March 2009. In the data collection, out of the 1000 questionnaires distributed, sixty three percent (63%) responded by early March 2009 giving a total of 630 respondents. However, six questionnaires were rejected due to the repeated marking of the scale's points and incomplete responses by the respondents.

By early March 2009, the data collection process was completed with 624 questionnaires coded and used for data analysis. Table 3.1 shows the whole process of the data collection.

Table 3.1:Response Rate

Item	Number	Percent (%)
Total Targeted sample	1000	100.0
Total questionnaires distributed	1000	100.0
Total questionnaires received	630	63.0
Total usable responses	624	62.4

3.7 Data Screening and Checking

Data screening and checking are important procedures to make certain that the data is free of errors. Inaccuracy may occur during the data entry and this will ruin the analysis. The following sections will discuss the detection of missing values, outliers and the manipulation of data.

3.7.1 Detection of Missing Values

During data collection, all questionnaires were checked and missing data was reduced. Then the collected data was manually keyed into the SPSS version 20. Next, a frequency distribution was run for each variable in the study, including the missing values analysis. This is to make certain that the data was 'clean'. Finally, the results indicated that there was no data missing in the data set.

3.7.2 Detection of Outliers

Outliers consists of four categories, namely, a) data entry error or mistake in coding; b) outliers due to extraordinary event; c) extraordinary observations for which the researcher has no explanation; and d) observations that fall within the ordinary range of values on each of the variables (Hair et al., 2006). It is important to make a distinction between outliers that should be deleted and those that should not be. In this study, outliers that should be deleted came from a procedural error which included either incorrect data entry or mistake in coding. Cleaning of data was done by running the frequencies and obtaining the descriptive tables, which can be used to determine the extent of item non-responses, errors on terms of illegitimate responses, cases with extreme values or outliers. From the output of the descriptive tables, all the items in each section of the questionnaires were examined to ensure that responses were within the range of the items or scales, and the extreme values were identified. The results showed that no error was detected in the data set of the study.

3.7.3 Data Coding

In data coding, the wording of particular items for some of the scales has been reversed to prevent response bias. Subsequently, all the questions that have been worded in the negative are reversed before the statistical analyses was carried out. This is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.2: Negatively Worded Questions

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTITY (PART 1)	
No.	Questions
18	I find it difficult to agree with the organization's policies on important matters relating to me.
19	My association with this organization is only a small part of who I am.
22	I feel very little loyalty to this organization.
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR (PART 2)	
No.	Questions
10	I take undeserved work breaks.
11	I spend a great deal of time on personal phone conversation.
12	I complain about insignificant things at work.
20	I neglect aspects of the job that are my responsibility to perform.
21	I fail to perform essential duties.
32	I am the classic squeaky wheel that always needs greasing.
33	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
34	I tend to make mountains out of molehills.
35	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.
36	I always find fault with what the organization is doing.
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT (PART 4)	
No.	Questions
4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
9	I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
25	Not much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.
29	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
30	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefit that I have here.

Before the calculation of the total scores for a particular scale, the negatively worded items had to be reversed. Furthermore, the range of the seven-point Likert scale for these items was changed from 7 (Strongly Agree) – 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Disagree) – 1 (Strongly Agree).

PART 2: CONSTRUCT MEASUREMENTS

3.8 Operationalization of Constructs

The operationalization of the constructs included the measurement items that were generated from established researchers. However, with the feedback gained from the pre-test, minor modifications were made to the items to suit the language, culture and business environment of the respondents. These minor modifications did not change the content of the constructs. Each construct was measured using a minimum of 15 items and to measure these constructs, a seven-point Likert scale was employed.

The following discussion on the constructs is based on the sequence presented in the conceptual framework. It deals with the measurement of OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

3.9 Measurement of Scales

3.9.1 OI

OI was measured using the Organizational Identification Questionnaire (hereinafter OIQ) (Cheney, 1982). By using it, the behavior patterns of individuals, groups or organizations can be understood and behavioral responses that will occur after certain management decisions are predicted (Johnson, Johnson & Heimberg, 1999).

The OIQ is a 25-item scale measured on a 7-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree).

3.9.2 OCB

OCB was measured using the Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale (hereinafter OCBS) developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). The 21-item scale obtains responses on a 7-point Likert scale where 1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree. Three types of OCBs measured included: behaviors directed at specific individuals (OCBI), behaviors directed at the organization (OCBO) and employee-in-role behaviors (IRB). Each type of OCB was measured by seven single item indicators.

OCB was also measured using the Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). The five dimensions of OCBs measurement included altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. All dimensions have five, single-item indicators except civic virtue, which has four indicators.

3.9.3 OEB

OEB was measured using the scale adopted from product brand equity scale. In marketing terms, brand equity is “a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by the product or service to a firm and/or to that firm’s customers” (Aaker, 1991). Consumer based brand equity relates to the effects of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the product (Keller, 1993). So, from employer branding perspective, brand equity applies to the effect of brand knowledge on the prospect and current employees of the organization. Employer brand equity encourages prospects to apply and current employees to stay.

Table 3.3: Measure for OEB

Authors	Original Measures	Measurement used in the study
Brand Awareness		
1-2. Motameni and Shahrokhi	1. This product is very familiar to	1. I am very familiar with my

Authors	Original Measures	Measurement used in the study
(1998), Oh (2000)	me	company
3. Arnett et al. (2003)	2. This product has a good name and reputation	2. My company has a good name and reputation
4. Kaplanidou and Vogt (2003)	3. The characteristics of this product come to my mind quickly	3. The characteristics of my company come to my mind quickly
5. Berry (2000)	4. When I am thinking about good products, this product comes to my mind quickly	4. When I am thinking about good company, my company comes to my mind quickly
Brand Image		
1-3. Lassar et al. (1995)	1. This product fits my personality	1. My company fits my personality
4-6. Sirgy et al. (1997), Grace and O'Cass (2005)	2. I would be proud to have this product	2. I would be proud to work in my company
	3. My friends would think highly of me if I owned this product	3. My friends would think highly of me if I worked in this company
	4. The image of this product is consistent with my own self-image	4. The image of my company is consistent with my own self-image
	5. Using this product reflects who I am	5. Working in this company reflects who I am
	6. People similar to me own this product	6. People similar to me work in this company
Brand Quality		
1-3. Aaker (1991), Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	1. This product has high quality offerings	1. My company has high quality offerings (financial and non-financial benefits)
4-5. Lassar et al. (1995)	2. This product provides offering of consistent quality	2. My company provides offerings of consistent quality
	3. This product provides quality experience	3. My company provides quality experience
	4. From this product's offering, I can expect superior performance	4. From my company's offerings, I can expect superior benefits
	5. This product performs better than other similar products	5. My company provides better offerings than other similar companies
Brand Loyalty		
1-2. Baloglu (2002), Back and Parks (2003)	1. I am emotionally attached to this product	1. I am emotionally attached to my company
3-4. Aaker (1991), Odin et al. (2001)	2. I enjoy using this product	2. I enjoy working in my company
5. Arnett et. al. (2003), Belen del Rio et al. (2001)	3. This product would be my preferred choice	3. My company would be my preferred choice to work with
6. Belen del Rio et al. (2001), Narayandas (1999)	4. Overall, I am loyal to this product	4. Overall, I am loyal to my company
	5. I would advise other people to use this product	5. I would advise other people to work with my company
	6. If the costs of using this product increases, I would still be willing to pay for them	6. If the benefits of working in my company decreases, I would still be willing to work for them
Brand Value		
1. Aaker (1996)	1. This product has a good name and reputation	1. My company has a good name and reputation
2. Sirgy et. al. (1997)	2. Using this product is economical	2. Working in my company is economical
3. Murphy et. al. (2000)	3. The image of this product is consistent with my own self-	3. The image of my company is consistent with my own self-
4. Sweeney & Soutar (2001)		
5. Odin et. al. (2001)		
6. Arnett et. al. (2003)		

Authors	Original Measures	Measurement used in the study
	image	image
	4. This product has reasonable prices	4. My company has a reasonable benefits
	5. This product provides offering of consistent quality	5. My company provides offerings of consistent quality
	6. This product would be my preferred choice	6. My company would be my preferred choice to work with
	7. The characteristics of this product come to my mind quickly	7. The characteristics of my company come to my mind quickly
Brand Meaning		
1. Berry (2000)	1. Even if another hotel is identical to the quality of this hotel, I would prefer the name of this hotel to the other name	1. Even if another company is identical to the quality of work of my company, I would prefer the name of my company to the other name
	2. The name of this hotel is more attractive to me than any other name of hotels	2. The name of my company is more attractive to me than any other name of companies
	3. The name of this hotel implies something superior to other hotels	3. The name of my company implies something superior to other companies
	4. If another hotel has the same price and quality as this hotel, it is smarter to choose this hotel	4. If another company has the same quality offerings (financial and non-financial) as my company, it is smarter to choose my company
	5. The name of this hotel may be the primary reason to use the services of this hotel	5. The name of my company may be the primary reason to work here
	6. If I were given a choice between this hotel and another hotel that seems identical with the quality of this hotel, I would select this hotel	7. If I were given a choice between my company and another company that seems identical with the quality offerings (financial and non-financial), I would select my company

3.9.4 OC

OC was measured using the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Cohen (2003) states that the Meyer and Allen commitment scales are the most valid scales used to measure organizational commitment. This is a 30-item scale that obtained responses on a 7-point Likert scale where 1= strongly disagree and 7= strongly agree. This scale breaks down into affective, normative or continuance commitment.

3.10 Background of Respondents

Finally, the information of the respondents was obtained from questions on the respondents' background in Part 5 of the questionnaire.

3.11 Introduction to Validity and Reliability

Both the validity and reliability of the measures need to be checked before the hypothesized model is tested. These measures are the main tools used to evaluate the characteristics of a good measurement. In addition, these tools involve a measurement of accuracy and applicability (Malhotra, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

The main concern for performing validity and reliability measures is to reduce measurement errors which make the most of testing the model in the hypotheses. Similarly, the idea is to develop a measurement that reflects a true score of the variables being measured (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002).

Thus, all measurements in this study were measured using the multi-item scales. Furthermore, there is a need to examine the extent to which a particular measurement represents a certain construct. The elimination of some of the items is necessary to improve the validity and internal consistency of the scales. The possible test used to examine the reliability and validity of the measurements is illustrated in Figure 3.2.

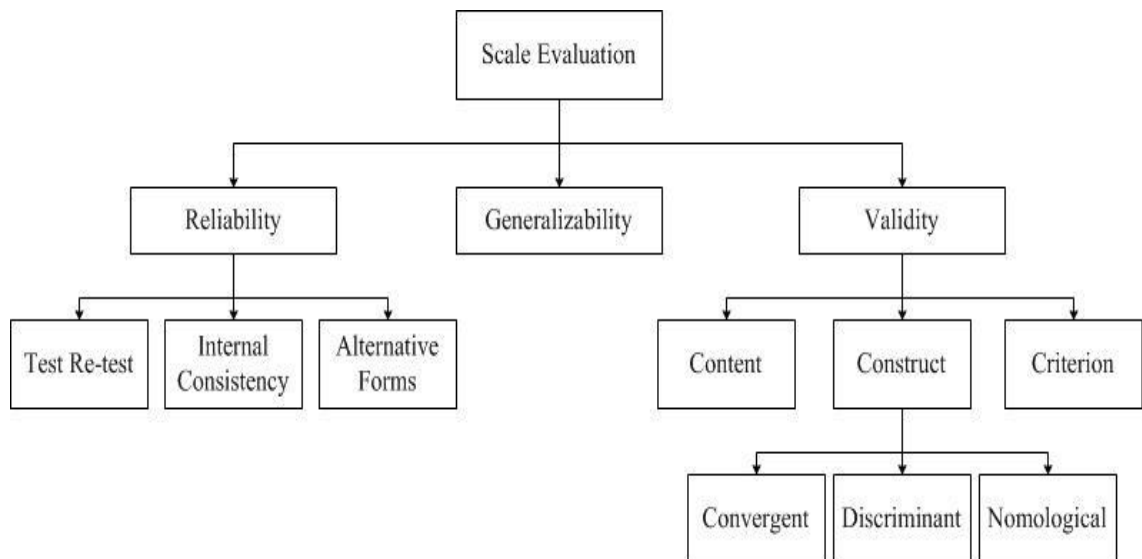


Figure 3.2: Scale Evaluation

3.12 Validity

As maintained by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994, p. 83), validity reflects how well a given measurement “measures what is purports to measure”. Subsequently, Churchill (1979) posits that a measure is valid when the differences in the observed scores reflect the true differences in the constructs that one attempts to measure. Validity is further discussed beginning with content validity, which is then followed by convergent, construct validity and finally, discriminant validity.

3.12.1 Content Validity

Cooper and Schindler (2001) state that content validity is the extent where there is a need for the ample exposure of all the domains of the constructs that are being examined. Meanwhile since content validity cannot be examined using statistical analysis, a thorough exploration of the literature and an extensive search of measures used in the literature must be applied. Furthermore, a pre-test is used to check on the

validity of the constructs. The measures used will be reviewed by experts, academicians or professionals based on the relevancy and adequacy of the constructs (Zikmund, 2003).

3.12.2 Construct Validity

Construct validity is “the extent to which the constructs or a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure” (Hair et al, 2006, p. 776). Therefore, construct validity deals with the accuracy of the measurement in which that item measures, selected from a sample to represent the actual true score that exists in the population (Hair et al., 2006). In fact, Bagozzi, Youjae and Phillips (1991, p. 422) posit that “without assessing construct validity one cannot estimate and correct for confounding influences of random error and method variance, and the results of the theory testing may be ambiguous.”

Using factor analysis, each measurement scale for this study was evaluated by analyzing its convergent and discriminant validity. According to Nunnally (1978), factor analysis has a role in testing these aspects of validity. For this study, two types of factor analyses, namely, the exploratory factor analysis (hereinafter EFA) and the confirmatory analysis (hereinafter CFA) were used to measure construct validity of the scales. The discussion on the results of the construct validity checking that is based on factor analysis follows below.

3.12.2.1 Methods of Assessing Construct Validity

3.12.2.1.1 Factor Analysis

Data parsimony and data interpretation are the underlying principles of factor analysis (Zikmund, 2003). Consequently, items are reduced to common interrelated and meaningful dimensions with a small amount of information loss (Hair et al. 2006) and the pattern of association will assist the researcher to establish the interrelationship of variables that belong together.

Factor analysis, can be categorized into EFA and CFA. For most researches that use scales with a priori assumptions about construct validity, the CFA method is used to confirm the measure but with a newly developed scale, the EFA is deemed more appropriate (Hurley et al., 1997). Incidentally, the EFA is used to examine the underlying structure of a measure, while the CFA investigates whether a specified hypothesized measurement structure provides an adequate explanation of the covariance between the observed variables (Kelloway, 1995).

EFA is used for data exploration in order to generate the hypotheses. It is a procedure that assists researchers to determine the structure of factors that is to be examined. Subsequently, it is a procedure used when the relationship between latent and observed variables is either unknown or uncertain. The distinct feature of EFA is that the factors are derived from theory, and these factors can only be named after factor analysis is performed. This means that EFA can be performed without knowing the number of factors that are present and exist or which variables belong with which constructs (Hair et al, 2006).

CFA is comparable to EFA in some respects, but it is different philosophically. CFA involves analyzing the relationship between latent (unmeasured or theoretical construct) and observed (measured or indicators) variables (Tabachnick & Fidel, 1996). CFA does

not use statistical results to determine the number of factors and loadings as compared to EFA. Here, the researcher must specify both the number of factors that exist within a set of variables and which factor each variable load highly on before computing the results (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, CFA does not assign variables to factors but, the researcher has to make this assignment before any results can be achieved.

Structural equation modeling (hereinafter SEM) is applied so as to test the extent to which a priori pattern of factor loading represents the actual data and how well the specification of the factors matches the actual data. The models for SEM entail both a measurement theory and a structural theory.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

For data exploration and for determining the structure of factors to be analyzed, the EFA technique is used. This technique is used to establish dimensionality and convergent validity of the relationship between items and constructs. Furthermore, in order to ascertain whether all the scales used in this study have construct validity, EFA was performed on OI, OCB, OEB and OI constructs. Besides determining the validity of measurements, the objective of doing a factor analysis in this study was to identify representative variables and to create new variables, if any, to be used in subsequent analysis. The idea was to obtain the most parsimonious set of variables to be included in the analysis.

A statistical test to quantify the degree of inter-correlations among the variables (Hair et al., 2006) was used to justify the application of factor analysis and the measure of sampling adequacy in this study. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett's Test) and Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) is used to measure sampling adequacy. The Bartlett's Test should be significant ($p < .05$) for factor analysis to be considered appropriate and

the measure of sampling adequacy produces the KMO index that ranges from 0 to 1, and this indicates that if KMO is more than 0.60 it is considered appropriate for factor analysis (Pallant, 2007).

This study used factor analysis under the extraction method of principal component analysis with the rotation method of VARIMAX with Kaiser Normalization to analyze the scales. VARIMAX rotation method was preferred since it minimizes the correlation across factors and maximizes within the factors. This, according to Nunnally (1978) helps to yield ‘clear’ factors. In fact this method is dynamic and is able to simplify the factor loadings and supports the interpretation. Factor loading indicates the strength of the relationship between the item and the latent construct and thus, is used to ascertain the convergent and discriminant validity of the scales (Hair et al., 2006). Nunnally (1978) posits that items with loadings higher than 0.50 on one factor are retained for further analysis. Nevertheless, this study retained items with a coefficient of 0.4 and above as it indicates a reasonable and sufficient loading (Lee & Crompton, 1992; Gorsuch, 1983). Table 3.4 shows the results of factor analysis of the constructs.

Table 3.4: Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Constructs

Factors/Items		Factor Loading
Organizational Identity – KMO = 0.90 Bartlett’s: Sig. = 0.00		
Similarity		
17	I have a lot in common with others employed by this organization.	0.769
16	The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve.	0.732
15	I feel that this organization cares about me.	0.712
14	I would be quite willing to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	0.673
24	I find it easy to identify with this organization.	0.619
21	I find that my values and the values of the organization are very similar.	0.602
23	I would describe this organization as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging.	0.598
9	I talk up this organization to my friend as a great company to work for.	0.595
25	I really care about the fate of this organization.	0.533
10	In general, I view the organization’s problems as my own.	0.424
Membership		
5	I often describe myself to others by saying “I work for this organization” or “I am from this organization”.	0.722
11	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the organization be successful.	0.662
12	I become irritated when I hear other outside the organization criticize the	0.643

Factors/Items		Factor Loading
	company.	
3	I am very proud to be an employee of this organization.	0.638
2	In general, the people employed by this organization are working toward the same goals.	0.583
6	I try to make on-the-job decisions by considering the consequences of my actions for this organization.	0.561
4	This organization's image in the community represents me as well.	0.549
13	I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to work.	0.511
8	I am glad I choose to work for this organization rather than other company.	0.487
Loyalty		
22	I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	0.682
18	I find it difficult to agree with the organization's policies on important matters relating to me.	0.672
19	My association with this organization is only a small part of who I am.	0.670
Factors/Items		Factor Loading
Organizational Citizenship Behavior – KMO = 0.88 Bartlett's: Sig. = 0.00		
Courtesy		
13	I conserve and protect organization property.	0.719
7	I pass along information to co-worker.	0.705
14	I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.	0.690
42	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	0.641
41	I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.	0.639
5	I go out of my way to help new employees.	0.635
24	I help others who have been absent.	0.621
27	I am a very conscientious employee.	0.616
6	I take a personal interest in other employees.	0.601
8	My attendance at work is above the norm.	0.574
31	I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	0.561
26	I help orient new people even though it is not required.	0.548
9	I give advance notice when unable to come to work.	0.522
29	My attendance is above the norm.	0.508
1	I help others who have been absent.	0.507
Altruism		
2	I help others who have extra workloads.	0.793
23	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	0.715
22	I help others who have heavy workloads.	0.678
25	I willingly help others who have work-related problems.	0.590
4	I take time to listen to co-worker's problem and worries.	0.577
3	I assist my supervisor with his/her work when not asked.	0.565
28	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	0.532
30	I do not take extra breaks.	0.512
17	I perform tasks that are expected of me.	0.467
16	I fulfill responsibilities specified in my job description.	0.465
Civic Virtue		
39	I do not abuse the rights of others.	0.702
38	I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.	0.699
45	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos and so on.	0.626
44	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.	0.562
43	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.	0.558
37	I try to avoid creating problems with my co-workers.	0.551
40	I take steps to try preventing problems with other employees.	0.549
18	I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	0.440
15	I complete assigned duties adequately.	0.435
Sportsmanship		
33	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	0.815
34	I tend to make mountains out of molehills.	0.788
32	I am the classic squeaky wheel that always needs greasing.	0.748

Factors/Items		Factor Loading
35	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.	0.721
36	I always find fault with what the organization is doing.	0.662
Conscientiousness		
20	I neglect aspects of the job that are my responsibility to perform.	0.724
10	I take undeserved work breaks.	0.706
19	I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance.	0.541
12	I complain about insignificant things at work.	0.506
11	I spend a great deal of time on personal phone conversation.	0.501
21	I fail to perform essential duties.	0.487
Factors/Items		Factor Loading
Organizational Employer Branding – KMO = 0.94 Bartlett's: Sig. = 0.00		
Brand Awareness		
2	This company has a good name and reputation	0.835
3	The characteristics of this company come to my mind quickly	0.811
1	This company is very familiar to me	0.771
6	I would be proud to work in this company	0.655
22	This company has a good name and reputation	0.597
4	When I am thinking about good company, this company comes to my mind quickly	0.560
Brand Quality		
13	This company provides quality experience	0.765
12	This company provides offerings of consistent quality	0.672
17	I enjoy working in this company	0.662
11	This company has high quality offerings (financial and non-financial benefits)	0.658
14	From this company's offerings, I can expect superior benefits	0.618
15	This company provides better offerings than other similar companies	0.572
Brand Image		
9	Working in this company reflects who I am	0.769
8	The image of this company is consistent with my own self-image	0.729
10	People similar to me work in this company	0.681
7	My friends would think highly of me if I worked in this company	0.637
5	This company fits my personality	0.490
Brand Value		
27	The name of this company implies something superior to other companies	0.791
26	The name of this company is more attractive to me than any other name of company	0.740
28	If another company has the same quality offerings (financial and non-financial), I would choose this company	0.599
16	I am emotionally attached to this company	0.577
Brand Loyalty		
21	If the benefits of working in this company decreased, I would still be willing to work for them	0.740
20	I would advise other people to work with this company	0.723
19	Overall, I am loyal to this company	0.615
18	This company would be my preferred choice to work with	0.571
25	Even if another company is identical to the quality of work of this company, I would choose the name of this company to the other name	0.503
Brand Meaning		
24	This company has a reasonable benefits	0.661
23	Working in this company is economical	0.652
29	The name of this company may be the primary reason to work here	0.569
30	If I were given a choice between this company and another company that seems to have the same quality offerings (financial and non-financial), I would select this company	0.462
Factors/Items		Factor Loading
Organizational Commitment – KMO = 0.92 Bartlett's: Sig. = 0.00		
Affective		
7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.820
8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	0.796

Factors/Items		Factor Loading
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with the organization.	0.751
22	I owe a great deal to this organization.	0.750
5	I feel like part of the family at my organization.	0.738
3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	0.714
20	This organization deserves my loyalty.	0.690
12	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	0.686
14	I was thought to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	0.678
6	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	0.673
21	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	0.663
18	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	0.643
15	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	0.627
2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.	0.620
19	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	0.612
17	I feel obligated to remain with my current employer.	0.595
10	I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	0.574
13	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	0.560
16	I think that wanting to be a "company man" or "company women" is sensible.	0.546
11	Jumping from organization to organization is unethical to me.	0.419
Continuance		
29	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	0.749
30	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefit that I have here.	0.679
28	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	0.663
23	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	0.630
26	I would be too costly for me to leave my organization right now.	0.630
24	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	0.587
Normative		
27	Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.680
4	I feel like part of the family at my organization.	0.677
25	Not much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	0.545

Table 3.4 shows the 25 items of the OIQ that were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was 0.90, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6 (Kaiser; 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significant, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues that are greater than

one, explaining 32.0%, 7.5% and 5.7% of the variance respectively. The factor loadings of the items in the three factors were between 0.424 and 0.769. The three factors were labeled as Similarity, Membership and Loyalty.

Five factors of OCB were derived from the output (Table 3.4) with eigenvalues exceeding one, explaining 27.54%, 11.02%, 5.40%, 4.68% and 3.88% of the variance respectively. The factor loadings were ranged between 0.462 and 0.835. The four factors were labeled as Courtesy, Altruism, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness.

From Table 3.4, the six factors of OEB were produced from the results with eigenvalues greater than one, explaining 48.56%, 7.19%, 5.07%, 4.63%, 3.87% and 3.15% of the variance respectively. The factor loadings of the items in the six factors were between 0.462 and 0.835. The six factors were labeled as Brand Awareness, Brand Quality, Brand Identity, Brand Value, Brand Loyalty and Brand Meaning.

Three factors of OC were derived from the output (Table 3.4) with eigenvalues exceeding one, explaining 38.54%, 6.61% and 6.27% of the variance respectively. The factor loadings of the items in the three factors were between 0.419 and 0.820. The three factors were labeled as Affective, Continuance and Normative.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling using AMOS was also used as the primary construct validation tool. Subsequently, the CFA is used to analyze convergent and discriminant validity, by assessing the measurement model developed to test each of the main variables in this study. Two methods are commonly used by researchers in evaluating the validity of the measurement model, namely, testing each construct separately where

each latent variable is conducted independently (Garver & Mentzer, 1999) or testing all constructs together at one time (Cheng, 2001).

CFA is used to examine convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity would be assessed through the inspection of the statistical significance of factor loadings (the estimated parameter between latent variables and their indicators). Ford, MacCallum and Tait (1986) state that in the value of standardized loading, the commonly considered threshold value is 0.40. On the contrary, to assess convergent validity, the proposed model has to present a holistic fit. There are multiple indices that are used to determine the fit of the model and operationalize different aspects of model fit (Kelloway, 1995; Hair et al., 2006; Bentler, 1990). In general there are two strategies to evaluate overall model fit. They are: 1) selecting fit indices which represent different families of fit indices and 2) specifying a stringent criteria and selecting fit indices that best represent this criteria (Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

Although a number of fit indices are available to evaluate the overall model fit, there is little consensus regarding the best index to be used or which index performs better under different conditions. Hair et al. (2006) and Bentler (1990) posit that the proposed model has to illustrate a satisfactory fit based on absolute fit, incremental fit and model parsimony. Model fit means that the hypothesized model fits the data well while absolute fit indices are a direct measure of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. These indices include chi-square statistics (χ^2), normed chi-square or relative chi-square (χ^2/df), goodness-of-fit (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI) and root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA).

Incremental fit indices differ from absolute fit indices in that they assess how well a specified model fits relative to some alternative baseline model. The most common baseline model is referred to as a null model, one that assumes all observed variables as

uncorrelated. Consequently, the results of the relationship from the hypothesized models are compared with the independent models. The score for the incremental fit model ranges from 0 to 1. A score close to 1 suggests a perfect fit whereas 0 refers to there being no difference between hypothesized and independent models. The indices of the incremental fit comprise the Normed Fit Index (NFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) or Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) and Relative Noncentrality Index (RNI).

Finally, parsimony fit indices refer to the application of parameters or the coefficient of hypothesized models. The fewer the estimated parameters used in the model, the more parsimonious the model (Hair et al., 2006; Bentler, 1995). These indices include the Parsimony Goodness-of Fit Index (PGFI), The Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC).

Garver and Mentzer (1999) reiterate that many fit indices do not meet the above criteria simply because they are adversely affected by the size of the sample. For example, the chi-square is the most common method of evaluating the overall model fit. However, it is frequently criticized due to its high sensitivity to the sample size, and the fact that the significance level can be misleading (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, based on these criteria, the use of the TLI, the CFI and the RMSEA were proposed. Moreover, TLI and CFI are preferred when dealing with samples with fewer than 200 respondents because they are likely to produce biased estimates (Bentler, 1989; Kline, 1998). Table 3.5 exhibits all the selected indices mentioned above to estimate the measurement model of the study.

All indices discussed above are estimated for the measurement models of the study. They are also a medium used to examine the convergent and discriminant validity. However, these indices are not the only criteria used to accept or reject the proposed

model but theoretical consideration, logical argument and opinions also have to be determined as the important criteria before any decision on model fit is made (Bryne, 2001).

Table 3.5: Summary of Fit Indices

Indices	Abbreviation	Acceptable Level	Comments
Chi-Square	$(\chi^2)(df, p)$	$p > 0.05$ at $\alpha = 0.05$	$P > 0.05$ reflects acceptable fit; 0.1 reflects a good fit.
Normed Chi-Square	$(\chi^2)/df$	$1.0 < (\chi^2)/df < 3.0$	Values close to 1 indicate good fit but values less than 1 may indicate over fit.
Goodness of fit	GFI	$GFI > 0.90$	Values between 0.90 – 0.95 indicate satisfactory fit and values higher than 0.95 indicate good fit.
Root Mean Square of Approximation	RMSEA	$RMSEA < 0.05$	Values between 0.05 – 0.08 indicates satisfactory fit. Value 0 indicates a perfect fit.
Normed Fit Index	NFI	$NFI > 0.90$	Values between 0.90 – 0.95 indicate satisfactory fit and values higher than 0.95 indicate good fit. Values greater than 1 indicate over fit.
Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI	$TLI > 0.90$	Values between 0.90 – 0.95 indicate satisfactory fit and values higher than 0.95 indicate good fit. Values greater than 1 indicate over fit.
Comparative Fit Index	CFI	$CFI > 0.90$	Values between 0.90 – 0.95 indicate satisfactory fit and values higher than 0.95 indicate good fit. Values close to 0 indicate poor fit, $CFI = 1$ indicates perfect fit.

Source: Adapted from Schumacker & Lomax (1996); Kline (1998)

3.12.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent where different methods that are used to measure the same construct produce similar results (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991). Meanwhile, Garver and Mentzer (1999) postulate that convergent validity is tested by determining whether the items in a scale converge or load together on a single construct in the measurement models. In other words, it is based on the correlation between responses obtained by maximally different methods of measuring the same construct. Consequently, if there is no convergence, either the theory used in the study needs to be

analyzed, or the purification of measures needs to be implemented by eliminating the items.

On the contrary, discriminant validity refers to the extent in which a certain construct is different from other constructs (Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005). This means that items from one scale should not load or converge too closely with items from a different scale. Moreover, the different latent variables which correlate too highly may indeed be measuring the same construct rather than different constructs (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). As a result, relatively low correlations or no correlation at all between variables indicates the presence of discriminant validity.

CFA provides a number of advantages in examining the instruments in terms of their convergent and discriminant validity. Firstly, CFA measures the overall degree of fit in any particular application such as chi-square and goodness-of-fit test. Next, with the use of chi-square difference test, together with the size of factor loadings for traits and the estimates for trait correlations, CFA provides useful information on how convergent and discriminant validity are achieved successfully. Finally, through squared factor loadings and error variance, explicit results are available for partitioning variance into trait, method, and error components (Bagozzi et al., 1991).

Thus, structural equation modeling with the Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) version 20 is used to examine convergent validity of OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

3.12.2.2.1 Results of Convergent Validity

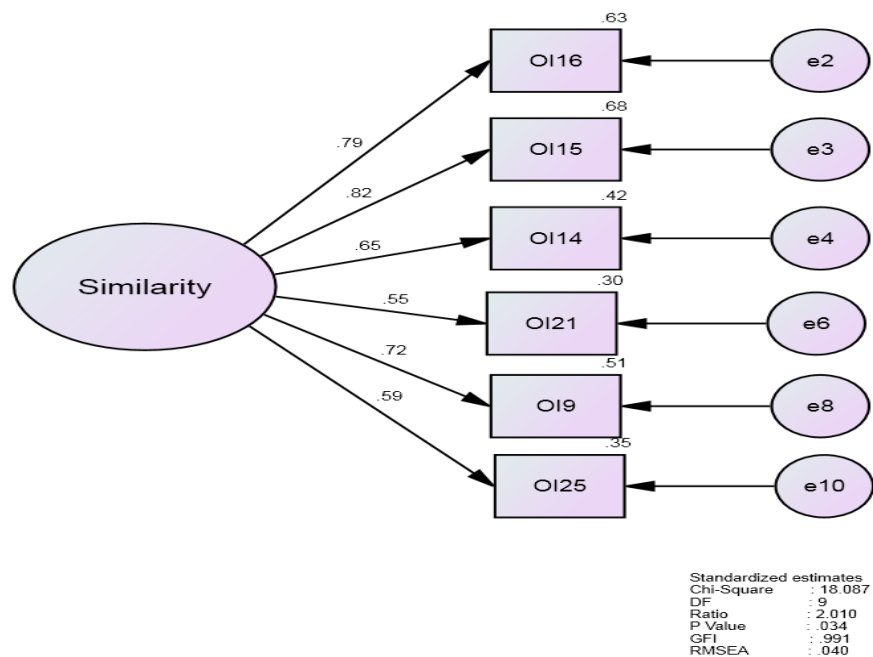
First Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Table 3.6 shows all the results of CFA on the constructs in this study.

Table 3.6: Results of First Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Variables	Chi-square (χ^2)	P value	χ^2/df	NFI	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Organizational Identity								
Similarity	18.087	0.034	2.013	0.987	0.991	0.989	0.993	0.040
Membership	6.231	0.284	1.246	0.993	0.996	0.997	0.999	0.020
Organizational Citizenship Behavior								
Courtesy	20.110	0.017	2.234	0.984	0.989	0.985	0.991	0.045
Altruism	8.483	0.132	1.697	0.992	0.995	0.993	0.997	0.033
Civic Virtue	11.873	0.037	2.375	0.987	0.992	0.984	0.992	0.047
Sportsmanship	7.077	0.029	3.538	0.993	0.994	0.985	0.995	0.064
Conscientiousness	9.563	0.008	4.781	0.986	0.993	0.967	0.989	0.078
Organizational Employer Branding								
Brand Awareness	6.341	0.042	3.171	0.995	0.995	0.989	0.996	0.059
Brand Quality	6.630	0.085	2.210	0.997	0.996	0.994	0.998	0.044
Brand Image	7.766	0.170	1.553	0.995	0.995	0.997	0.998	0.030
Brand Value	2.331	0.312	1.165	0.998	0.998	0.999	1.000	0.016
Brand Loyalty	1.278	0.258	1.278	0.999	0.999	0.998	1.000	0.021
Brand Meaning	3.599	0.058	3.590	0.996	0.997	0.984	0.997	0.065
Organizational Commitment								
Affective	1.492	0.474	0.746	0.999	0.999	1.000	1.000	0.000
Continuance	2.120	0.145	2.120	0.997	0.998	0.990	0.998	0.042

In the following pages, Figures 3.3 to 3.4 illustrate the measurement models for the constructs OI namely Similarity and Membership.

**Figure 3.3: First Order CFA for Similarity**

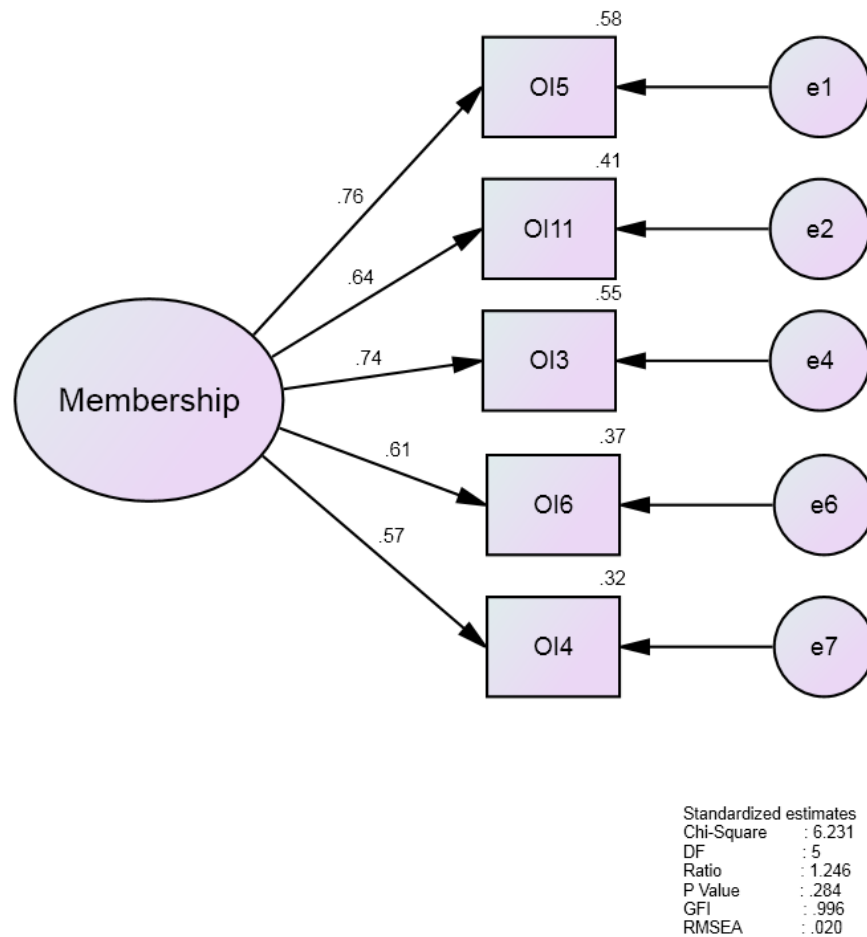


Figure 3.4: First Order CFA for Membership

Figure 3.5 to 3.9 exhibit the measurement model for OCB namely Courtesy, Altruism, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness.

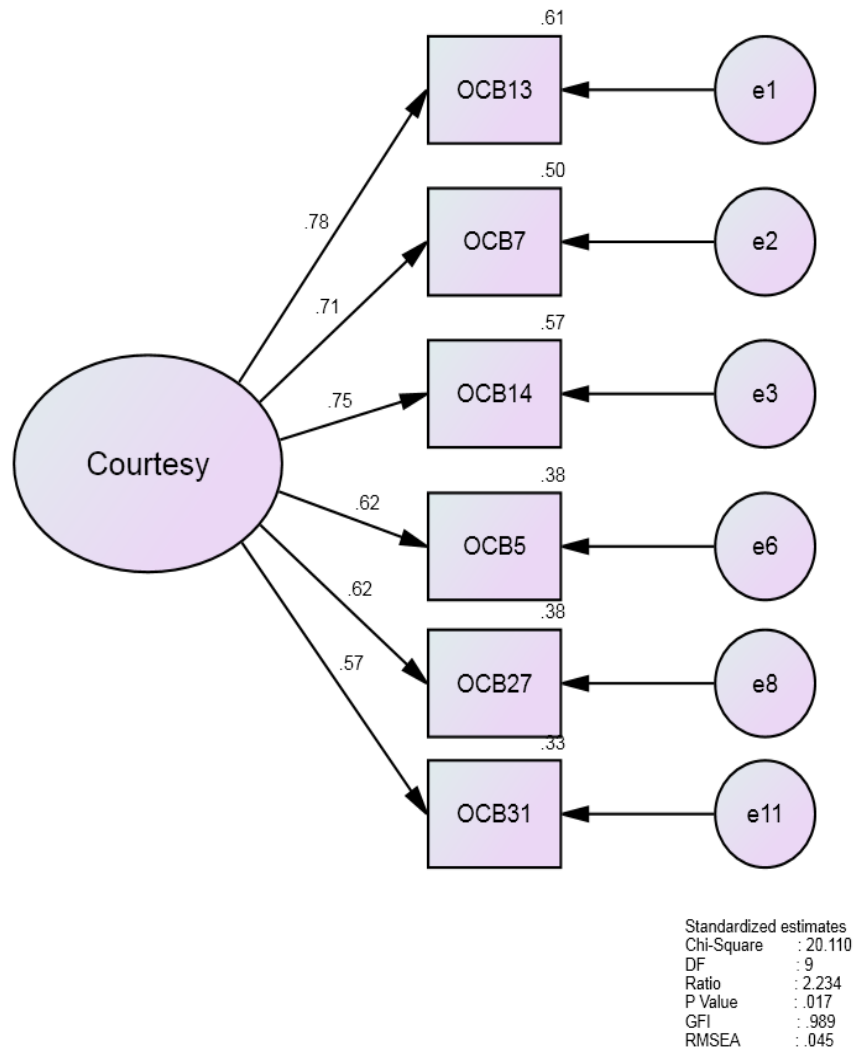


Figure 3.5: First Order CFA for Courtesy

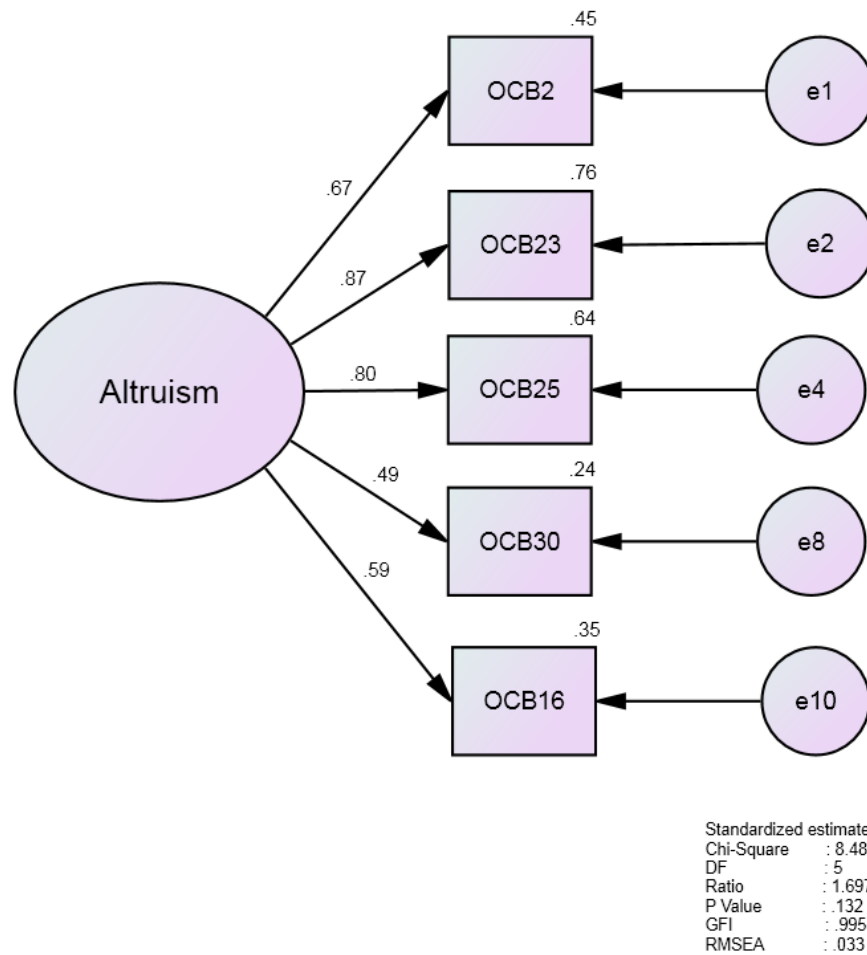


Figure 3.6: First Order CFA for Altruism

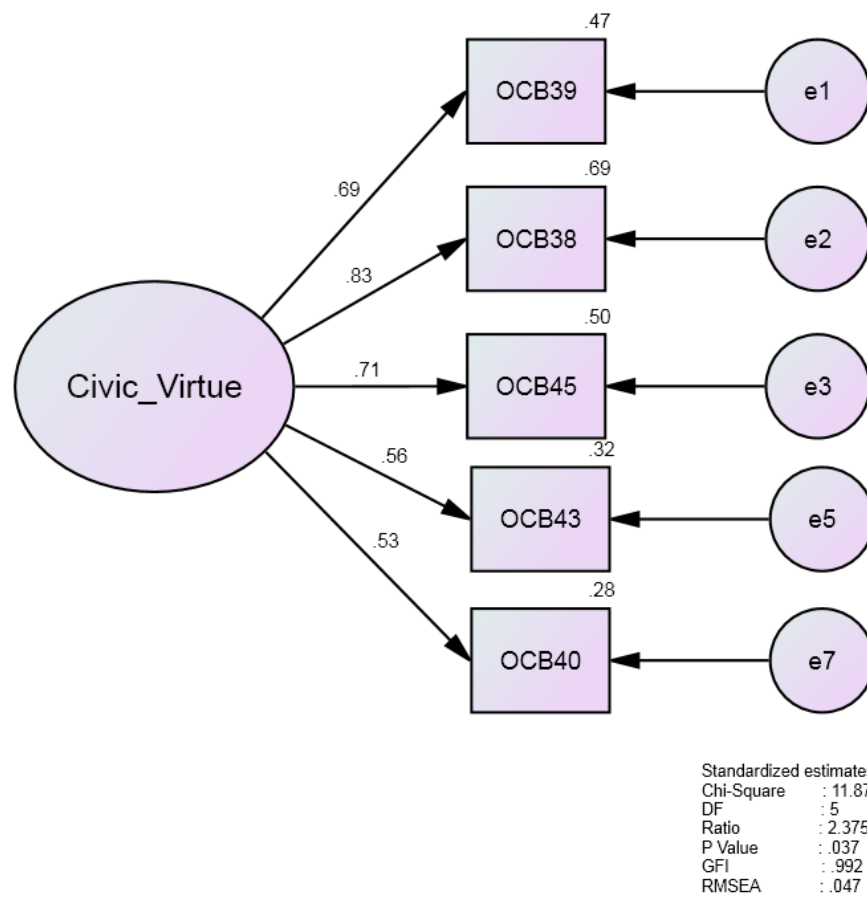


Figure 3.7: First Order CFA for Civic Virtue

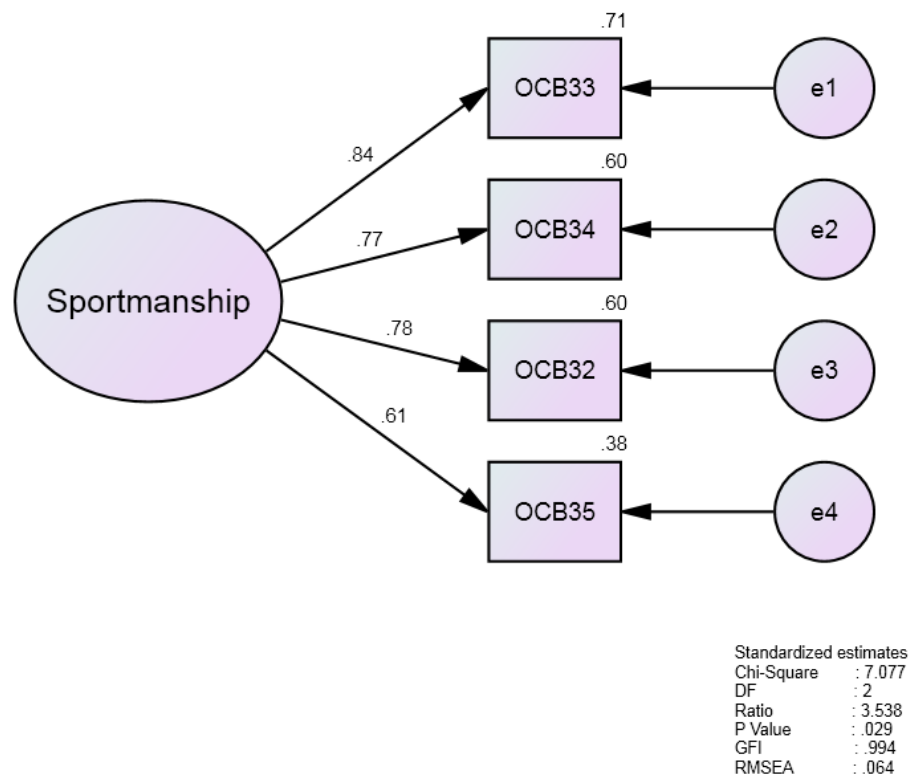


Figure 3.8: First Order CFA for Sportmanship

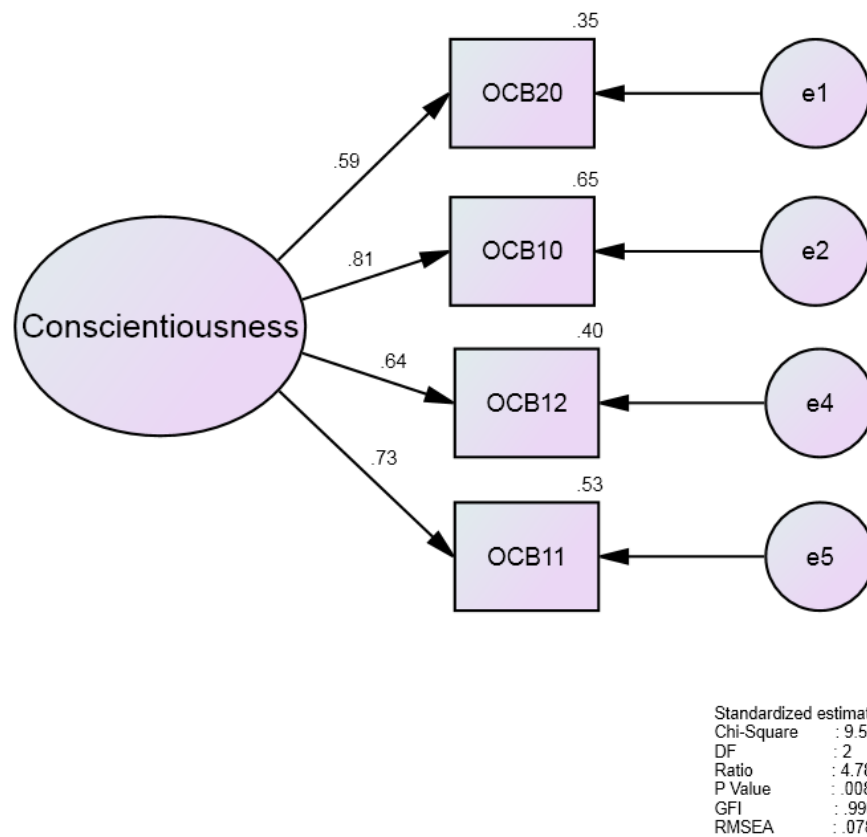


Figure 3.9: First Order CFA for Conscientiousness

Figures 3.10 to 3.15 exhibit the measurement model for OEB namely Brand Awareness, Brand Quality, Brand Image, Brand Value, Brand Loyalty and Brand Meaning.

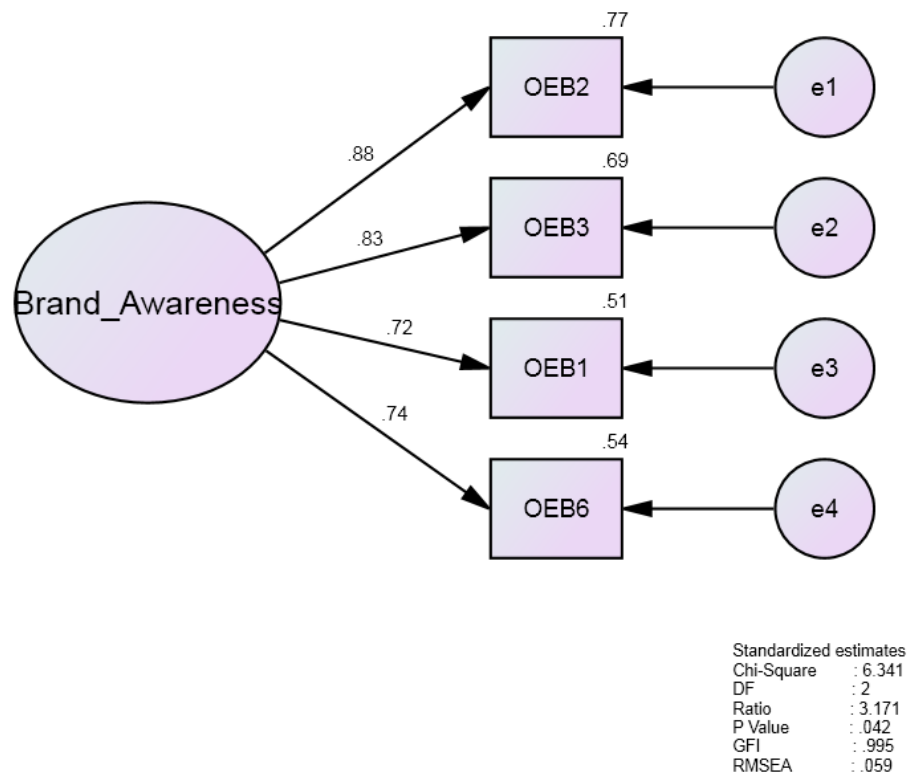


Figure 3.10: First Order CFA for Brand Awareness

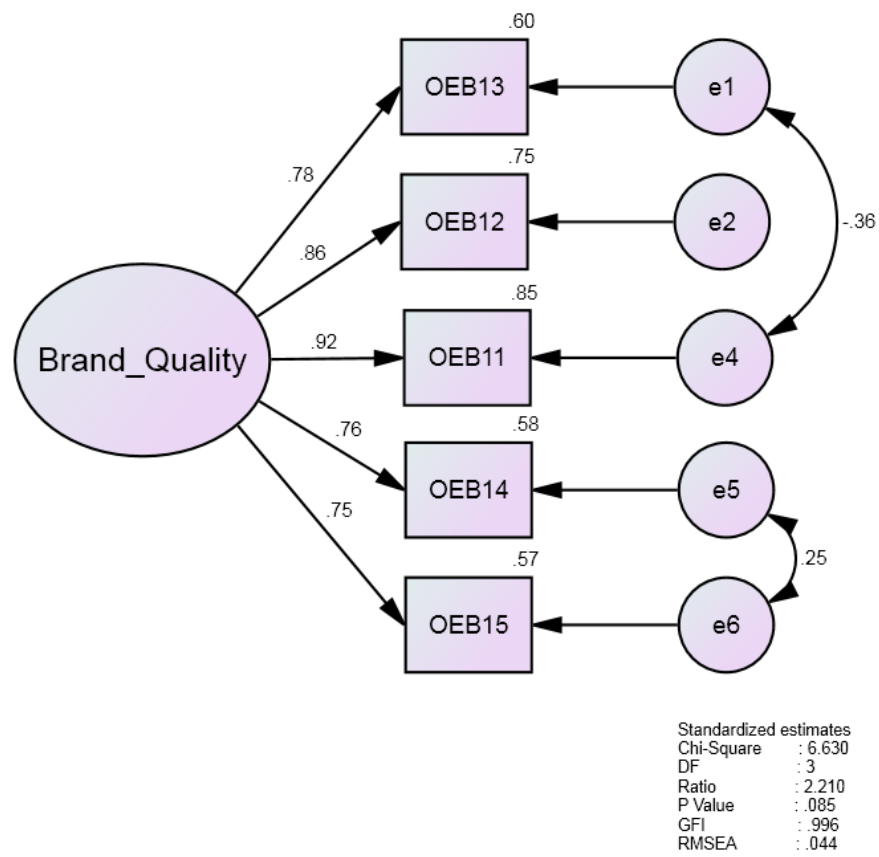


Figure 3.11: First Order CFA for Brand Quality

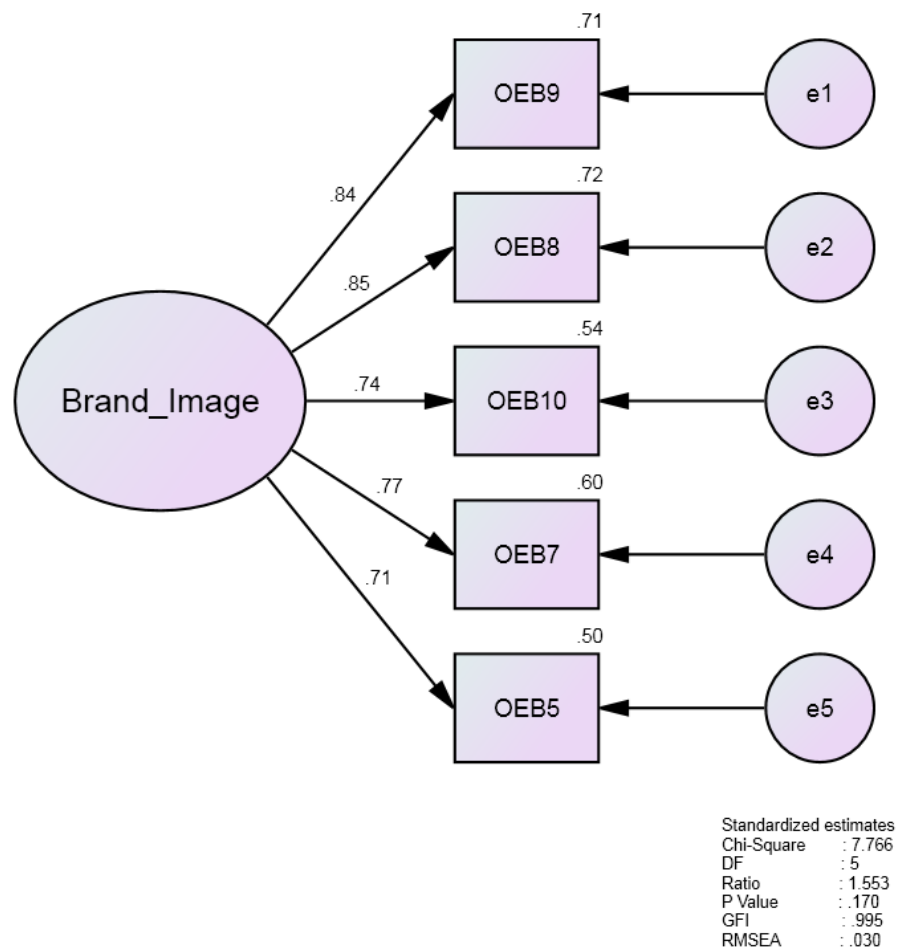


Figure 3.12: First Order CFA for Brand Image

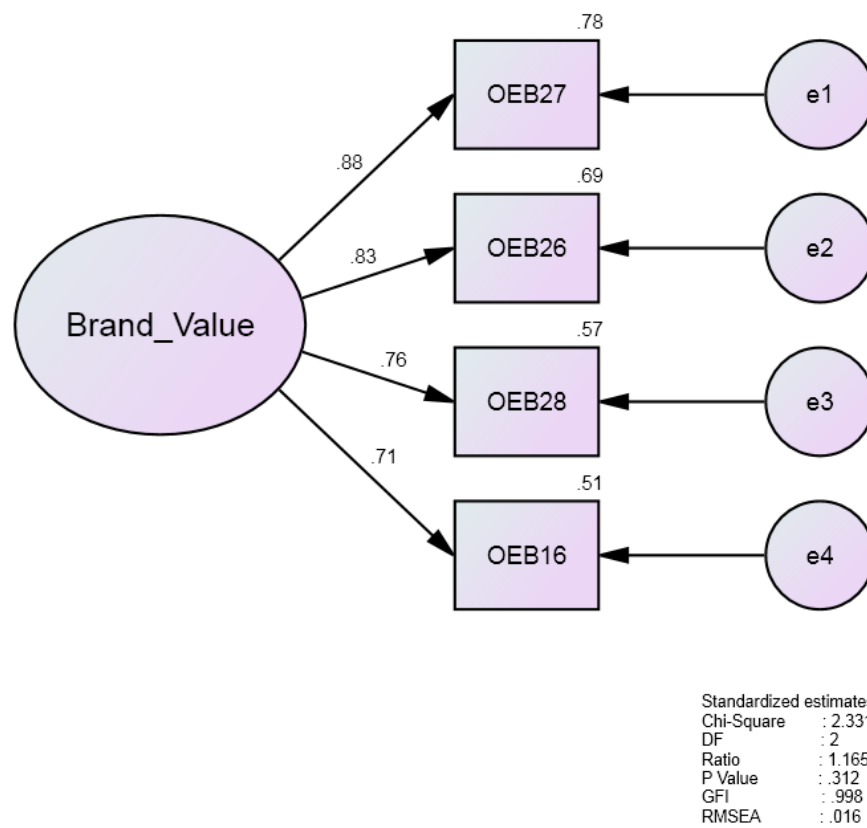


Figure 3.13: First Order CFA for Brand Value

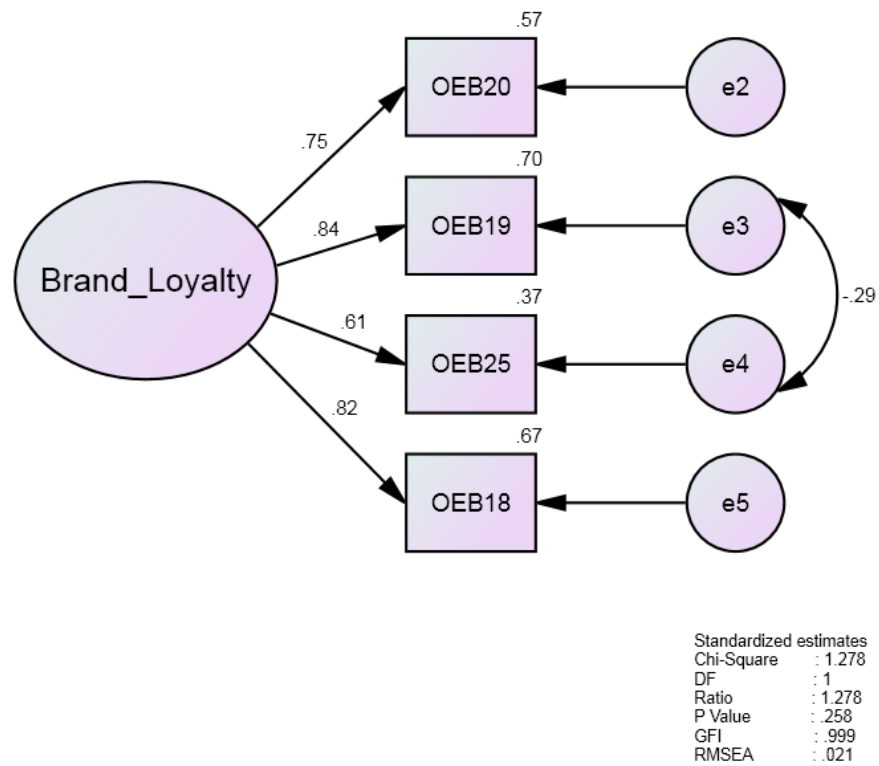


Figure 3.14: First Order CFA for Brand Loyalty

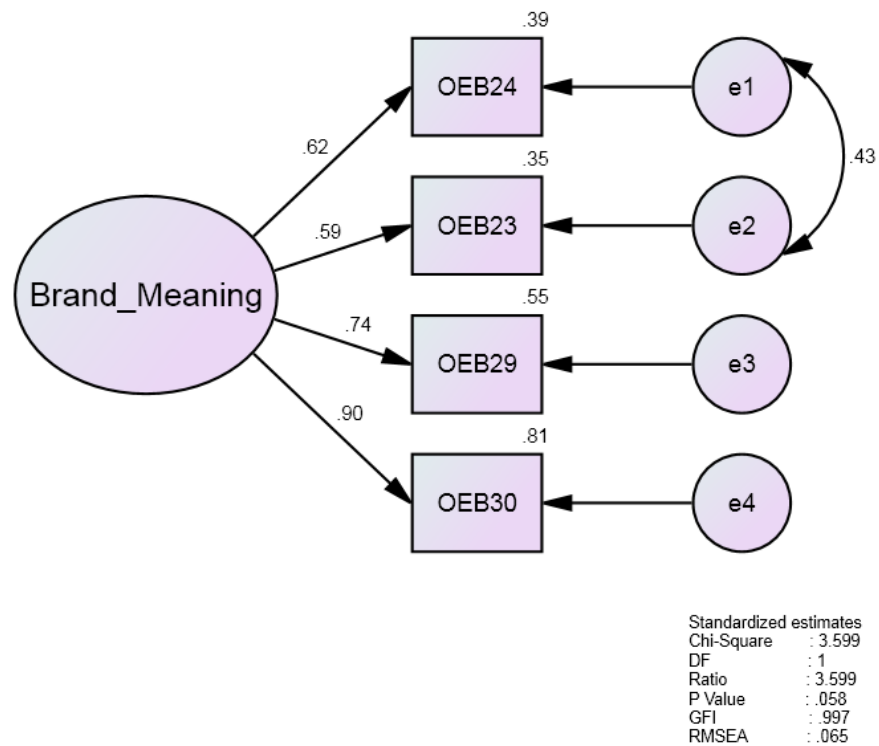


Figure 3.15: First Order CFA for Brand Meaning

Figure 3.16 to 3.17 exhibit the measurement model for OC namely Affective and Continuance.

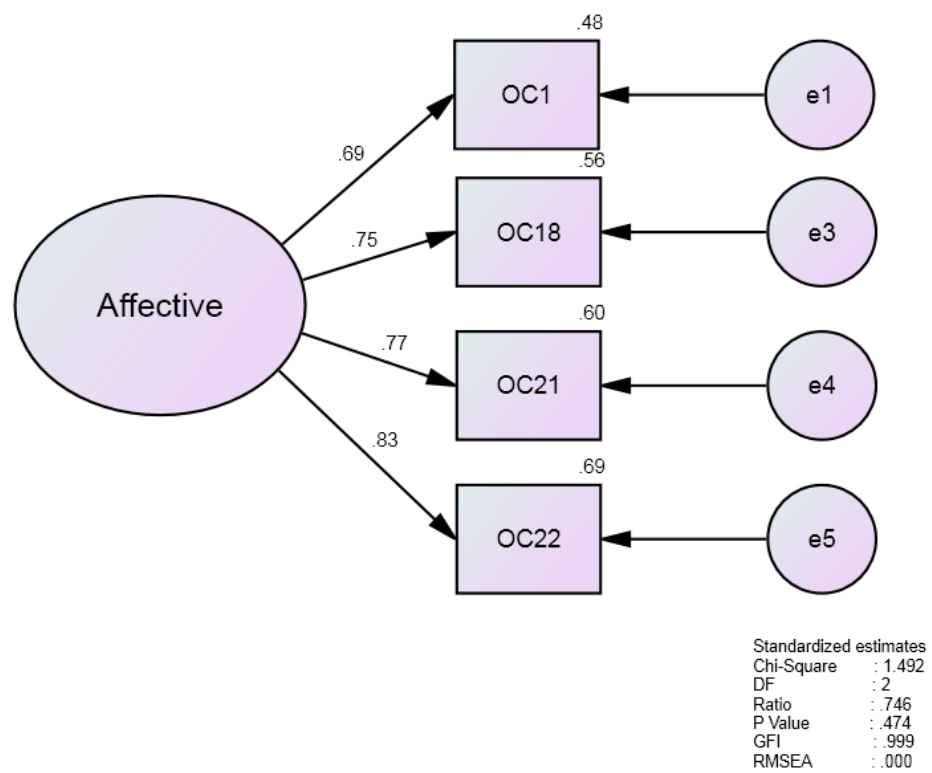


Figure 3.16: First Order CFA for Affective

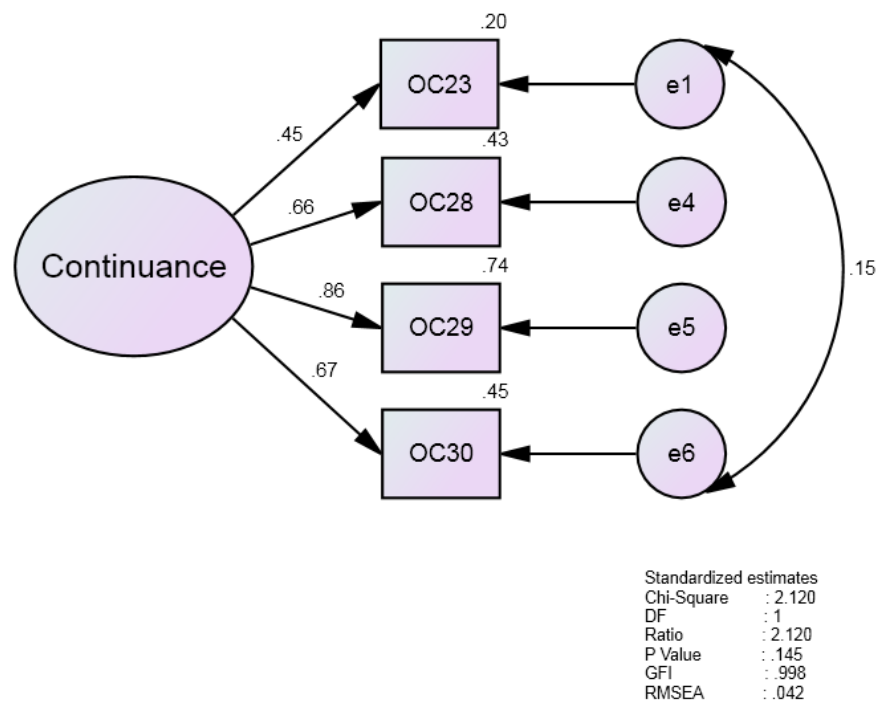


Figure 3.17: First Order CFA for Continuance

The results from these models show that based on modification indices and standardized error, a few items were dropped to get the data to fit the model. For OI construct, OI17, OI23, OI24, OI10, OI12, OI2, OI13, OI8, OI22, OI18 and OI19 were dropped to meet the criteria of model fit. As for OCB construct, OCB42, OCB41, OCB24, OCB6, OCB8, OCB26, OCB9, OCB29, OCB1, OCB22, OCB4, OCB3, OCB28, OCB17,

OCB44, OCB37, OCB18, OCB15, OCB36, OCB19 and OCB21 were eliminated to ensure the data fits the model. For OEB construct, OEB22, OEB4, OEB17 and OEB21 were taken out to meet the criteria of model fit. Finally, as for OC construct, OC7, OC8, OC5, OC3, OC20, OC12, OC14, OC6, OC15, OC2, OC19, OC17, OC10, OC13, OC16, OC11, OC26, OC24, OC27, OC4 and OC25 were left out to ensure that the data fits the model.

Although there are a number of items that were dropped, there are justifications for dropping the items. This is because dropping items from a previously validated scale should be carried out judiciously and sensibly (Nijssen & Douglas, 2004). Firstly, the scales for OI, OCB, OEB and OC were integrated from various researchers and considered exploratory in nature. Therefore, in this case, dropping items were considered legitimate reasons in order to seek greater parsimony and fitness (Klein, Ettenson & Krishnan, 2006).

Another possible justification for dropping the items was that the integrated items had never been used in a Malaysian sample before and in fact most of the findings from previous studies of OI, OCB, OBE and OC used the scales which were already established and validated.

Apart from assessing the overall fit of the first order CFA for measurement model, the critical ratio (t-test) for the factor loading is often used to assess convergent validity. This is because when the factor loadings show that it is statistically significant, then the convergent validity exists (Dunn, Seaker & Waller, 1994). The magnitude and direction of the estimated parameters between latent variables and their indicators are also examined for convergent validity (Steenkamp & Van Trijp, 1991).

Table 3.7 exhibits the results of the magnitude, direction, and statistical significance of the estimated parameters between latent variables and their indicators.

Table 3. 7: The Magnitude, Direction and Statistical Significance of the Estimated Parameters between Latent Variables and their Indicators

Latent	Indicator	Standardized Reg. Weight	Standard Error (S.E)	Critical Ratio (C.R)	P
Similarity	→ OI16	0.792			
	→ OI15	0.822	0.054	20.647	***
	→ OI14	0.651	0.065	16.107	***
	→ OI21	0.545	0.051	13.240	***
	→ OI9	0.717	0.051	17.931	***
	→ OI25	0.590	0.047	14.439	***
Membership	→ OI5	0.758			
	→ OI11	0.639	0.058	14.162	***
	→ OI3	0.0743	0.060	15.985	***
	→ OI6	0.607	0.050	13.496	***
	→ OI4	0.567	0.059	12.657	***
Courtesy	→ OCB13	0.778			
	→ OCB7	0.709	0.059	16.931	***
	→ OCB14	0.753	0.054	17.964	***
	→ OCB5	0.617	0.060	14.660	***
	→ OCB27	0.619	0.051	14.693	***
	→ OCB31	0.573	0.061	13.566	***
Altruism	→ OCB2	0.667			
	→ OCB23	0.870	0.072	17.263	***
	→ OCB25	0.799	0.068	16.631	***
	→ OCB30	0.491	0.083	10.961	***
	→ OCB16	0.493	0.060	13.004	***
Civic Virtue	→ OCB39	0.686			
	→ OCB38	0.830	0.075	16.198	***
	→ OCB45	0.706	0.062	14.852	***
	→ OCB43	0.562	0.071	12.214	***
	→ OCB40	0.526	0.061	11.493	***
Sportsmanship	→ OCB33	0.844			
	→ OCB34	0.774	0.048	19.888	***
	→ OCB32	0.776	0.049	19.936	***
	→ OCB35	0.615	0.061	15.368	***
Conscientiousness	→ OCB20	0.593			
	→ OCB10	0.808	0.098	13.257	***
	→ OCB12	0.636	0.087	11.883	***
	→ OCB11	0.728	0.087	12.873	***
Brand Awareness	→ OEB2	0.877			
	→ OEB3	0.830	0.040	23.973	***
	→ OEB1	0.716	0.052	19.835	***
	→ OEB6	0.736	0.046	20.595	***
Brand Quality	→ OEB12	0.865			
	→ OEB11	0.921	0.054	21.813	***
	→ OEB14	0.759	0.062	21.858	***
	→ OEB15	0.752	0.056	19.059	***
	→ OEB13	0.776	0.064	18.859	***
Brand Image	→ OEB9	0.844			
	→ OEB8	0.850	0.041	24.911	***
	→ OEB10	0.736	0.045	20.469	***

Latent		Indicator	Standardized Reg. Weight	Standard Error (S.E)	Critical Ratio (C.R)	P
	→	OEB7	0.772	0.042	21.878	***
	→	OEB5	0.707	0.040	19.383	***
Brand Value	→	OEB27	0.882			
	→	OEB26	0.833	0.041	24.601	***
	→	OEB28	0.758	0.041	21.739	***
	→	OEB16	0.712	0.047	19.929	***
Brand Loyalty	→	OEB20	0.753			
	→	OEB19	0.835	0.055	18.869	***
	→	OEB25	0.606	0.064	130490	***
	→	OEB18	0.820	0.056	19.879	***
Brand Meaning	→	OEB24	0.621			
	→	OEB23	0.590	0.057	16.325	***
	→	OEB29	0.743	0.089	14.574	***
	→	OEB30	0.902	0.118	14.261	***
Affective	→	OC1	0.693			
	→	OC18	0.749	0.063	16.252	***
	→	OC21	0.773	0.058	16.665	***
	→	OC22	0.831	0.059	17.447	***
Continuance	→	OC23	0.446			
	→	OC28	0.659	0.153	9.427	***
	→	OC26	0.858	0.212	9.398	***
	→	OC30	0.671	0.153	10.284	***

Table 3.7 shows that the magnitude for all variables and their indicators are above the reasonable benchmark of 0.40 (Hatcher, 1994). The direction for all the estimated parameters are also in the same direction as what previous researchers wanted it to be, that is, all the indicators showed a positive direction. Likewise, the critical ratio (t-test) for all the estimated parameters exceeded the benchmark of ± 1.96 , which was also found to be statistically significant. The standard error (S.E.), on the other hand, was not extremely large or small (Bryne, 2001). Therefore, the convergent validity does exist for the study variables of the measurement models.

Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis OI

The 2nd Order technique was employed to determine the OI measurement as latent construct. Based on CFA of variables, a result of OI dimensions, 2nd order analysis technique has succeeded to configure the significant dimensions of the present study. An exogenous construct measurement model was conducted to assess the psychometric

properties and unidimensionality of the measures. The adequacy of the OI as measurement model can be evaluated on the criteria of convergent validity of factor loading (>0.5) and overall model fit of the data. The measurement model was run with 11 measures to assess the two constructs – Similarity and Membership.

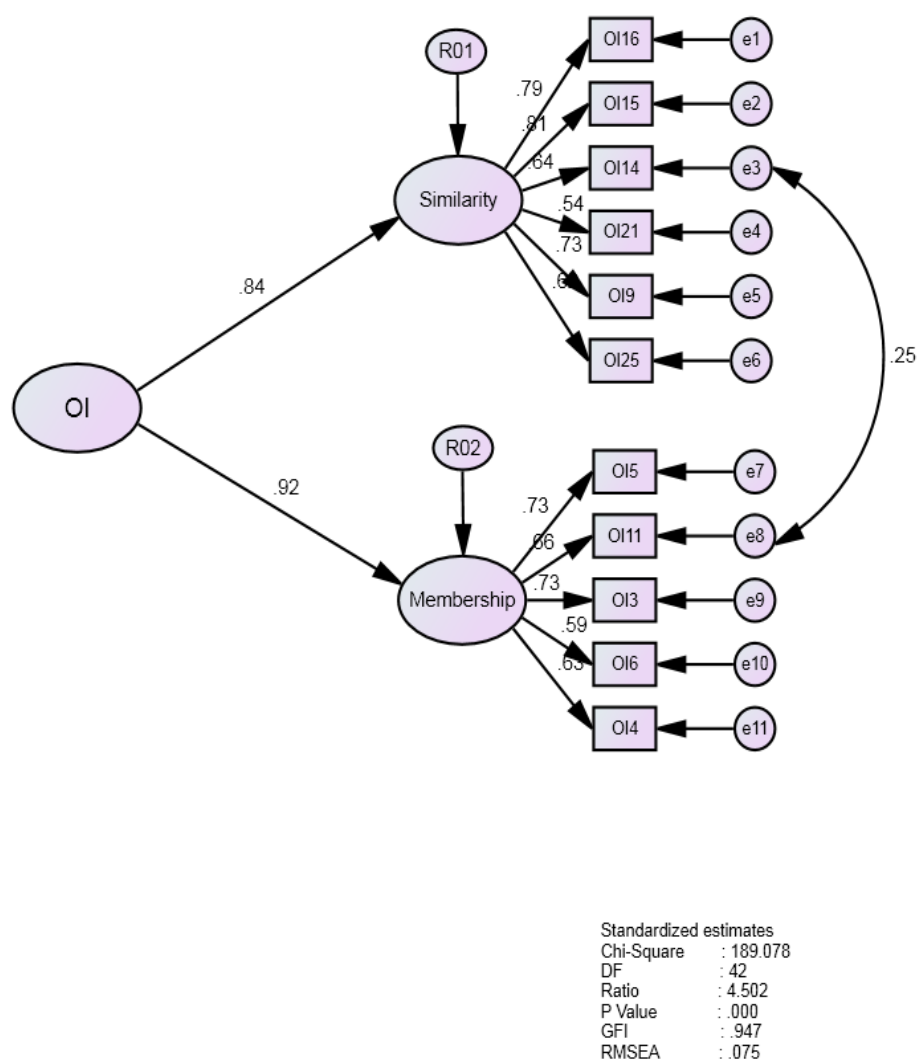


Figure 3.18: Second Order CFA for OI

Table 3.8: Goodness of Model Fit of OI (After MI)

Model Fit Indicator	Value
CMIN (X2)	189.078
DF	42
CMIN/DF	4.502
PROB	0.000
GFI	0.947
RMSEA	0.075

The OI constructs, as measurement model, is within the acceptable level, indicating a sound fit of the data to the model shown in Figure 3.18 above. The chi-square goodness of fit is significant due to large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and provides acceptable fit. As evidence of convergent validity, all items loaded on their pre-specified constructs. The goodness of the model fit ($\chi^2 = 189.078$, DF= 42, Ratio = 4.502, P = 0.000, GFI = 0.947, RMSEA = .075) confirmed the significant model of OI model. Through EFA, CFA and 2nd order analysis, the present study confirmed the two dimensions of OI and 11 items as valid measurements.

Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis OCB

The 2nd Order technique was employed to determine the OCB measurement as latent construct. Based on CFA of variables, a result of OCB dimensions, 2nd order analysis technique has succeeded to configure the significant dimensions of the present study. An exogenous construct measurement model was conducted to assess the psychometric properties and unidimensionality of the measures. The adequacy of the OCB as measurement model can be evaluated on the criteria of convergent validity of factor loading (>0.5) and overall model fit of the data. The measurement model was run with 18 measures to assess the five constructs – Courtesy, Altruism, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness.

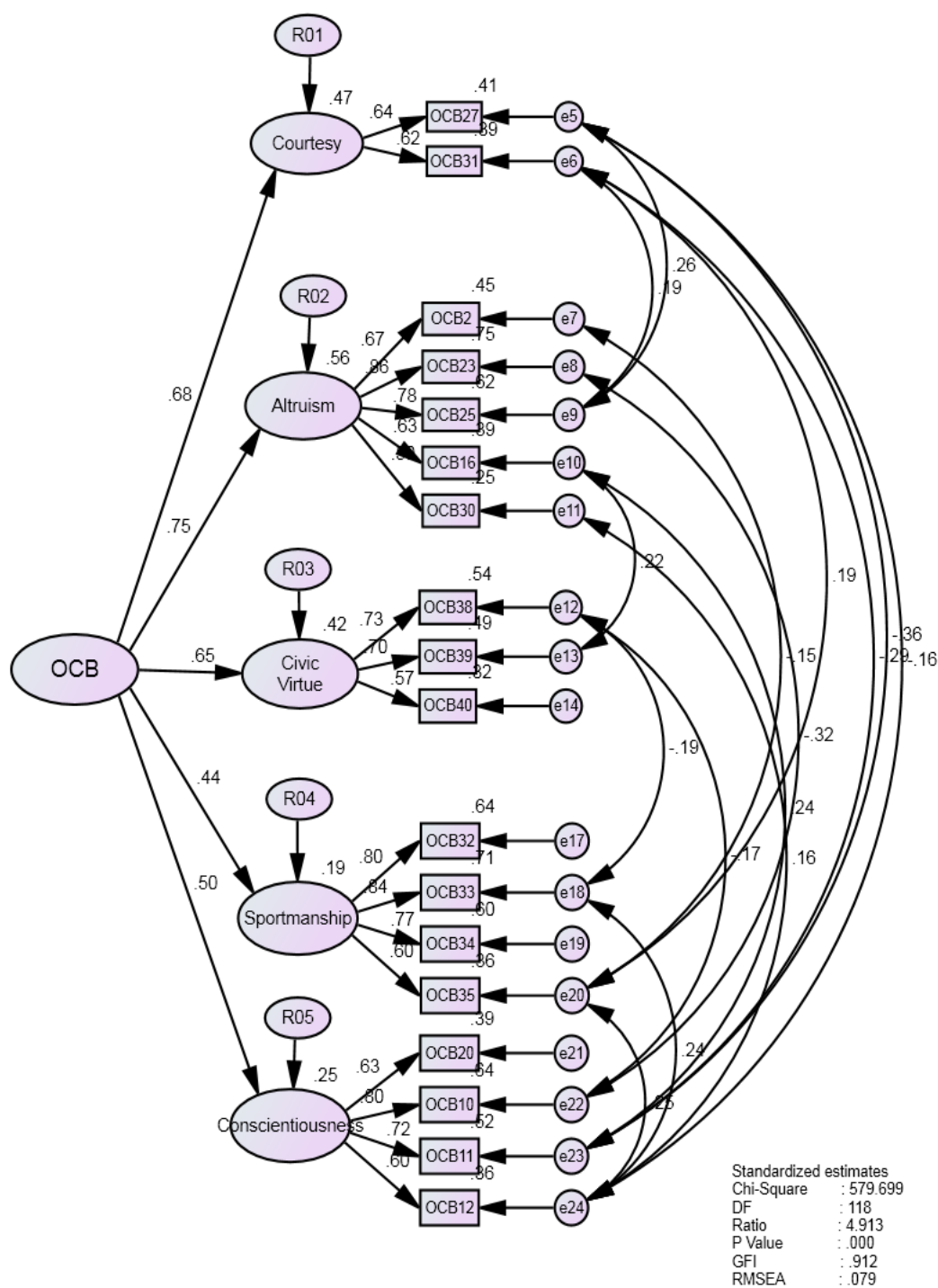


Figure 3.19: Second Order CFA for OCB

Table 3.9: Goodness of Model Fit of OCB (After MI)

Model Fit Indicator	Value
CMIN (X2)	579.699
DF	118
CMIN/DF	4.913
PROB	0.000
GFI	0.912
RMSEA	0.079

The OCB constructs, as measurement model, is within the acceptable level, indicating a sound fit of the data to the model shown in Figure 3.19. The chi-square goodness of fit is significant due to large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and provides acceptable fit. As evidence of convergent validity, all items loaded on their pre-specified constructs. The goodness of the model fit ($\chi^2 = 579.699$, DF= 118, Ratio = 4.913, P = 0.000, GFI = 0.912, RMSEA = .079) confirmed the significant model of OCB model. Through EFA, CFA and 2nd order analysis, the present study confirmed the five dimensions of OCB and 18 items as valid measurements.

Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis OEB

The 2nd order technique was employed to determine the OEB measurement as latent construct. Based on CFA of variables, a result of OEB dimensions, 2nd order analysis technique has succeeded to configure the significant dimensions of the present study. An endogenous construct measurement model was conducted to assess the psychometric properties and unidimensionality of the measures. The adequacy of the OEB as measurement model can be evaluated on the criteria of convergent validity of factor loading (>0.5) and overall model fit of the data. The measurement model was run with 9 measures to assess the three constructs – Brand Awareness, Brand Value and Brand Meaning.

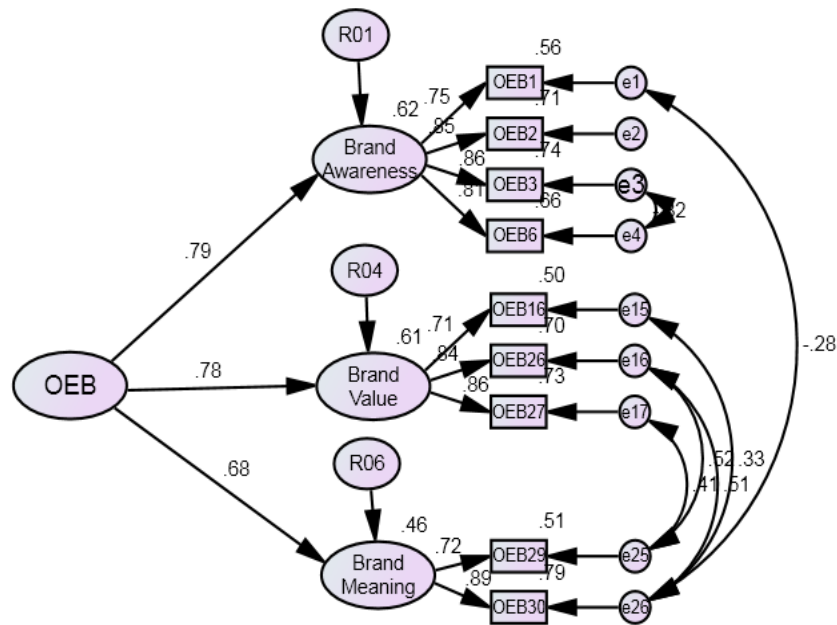


Figure 3.20: Second Order CFA for OEB

Table 3.10: Goodness of Model Fit of OEB (After MI)

Model Fit Indicator	Value
CMIN (X2)	95.629
DF	20
CMIN/DF	4.781
PROB	0.000
GFI	0.967
RMSEA	0.078

The OEB constructs, as measurement model, is within the acceptable level, indicating a sound fit of the data to the model shown in Figure 3.20. The chi-square goodness of fit is significant due to large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and provides acceptable fit. As evidence of convergent validity, all items loaded on their pre-specified constructs. The goodness of the model fit ($\chi^2 = 95.629$, $DF = 20$, Ratio = 4.781, $P = 0.000$, GFI = 0.967, RMSEA = .078) confirmed the significant model of OEB model. Through EFA, CFA and 2nd order analysis, the present study confirmed the three dimensions of OEB and nine items as valid measurements.

Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis OC

The 2nd Order technique was employed to determine the OC measurement as latent construct. Based on CFA of variables, a result of OEB dimensions, 2nd order analysis technique has succeeded to configure the significant dimensions of the present study. An endogenous construct measurement model was conducted to assess the psychometric properties and unidimensionality of the measures. The adequacy of the OC as measurement model can be evaluated on the criteria of convergent validity of factor loading (> 0.5) and overall model fit of the data. The measurement model was run with 6 measures to assess the two constructs – Affective and Continuance.

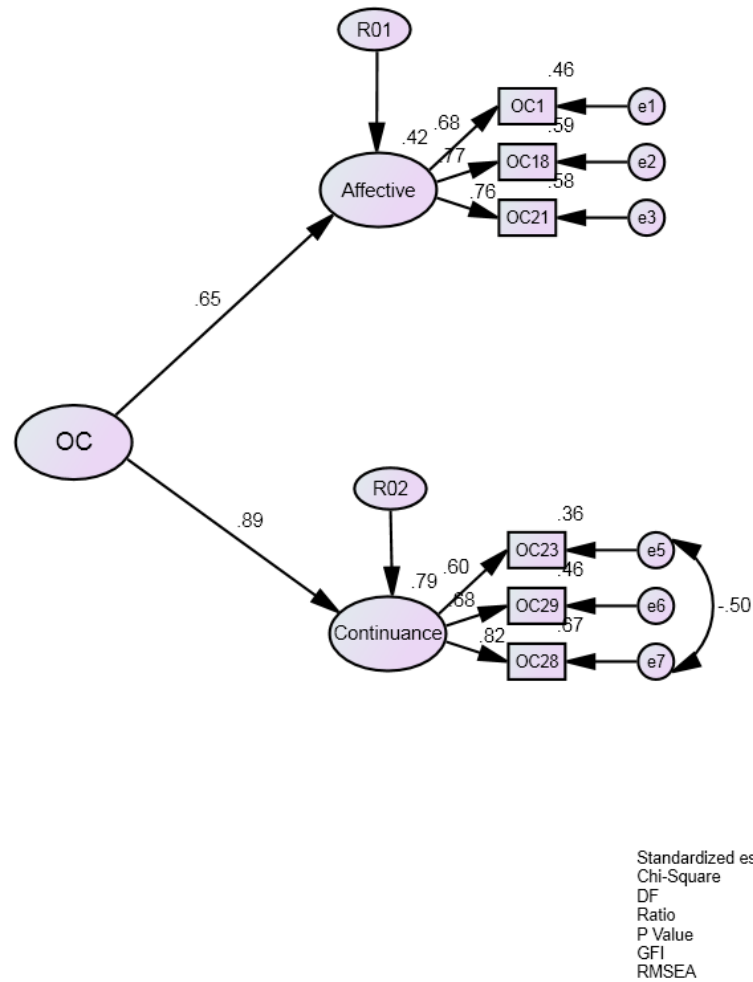


Figure 3.21: Second Order CFA for OC

Table 3.11: Goodness of Model Fit of OC (After MI)

Model Fit Indicator	Value
CMIN (X^2)	8.454
DF	7
CMIN/DF	1.208
PROB	0.294
GFI	0.996
RMSEA	0.018

The OC constructs, as measurement model, is within the acceptable level, indicating a sound fit of the data to the model shown in Figure 3.21. The chi-square goodness of fit is significant due to large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) and provides acceptable fit. As evidence of convergent validity, all items loaded on their pre-specified constructs. The goodness of the model fit ($\chi^2 = 8.454$, DF= 7, Ratio = 1.208, P = 0.294, GFI = 0.996, RMSEA = .018) confirmed the significant model of OC model. Through EFA, CFA and 2nd order analyses, the present study confirmed the two dimensions of OC and six items as valid measurements.

3.12.2.2.2 Results of Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent in which a certain construct is different from other constructs so these constructs must be tested for its presence. This is because discriminant validity can verify that the scales developed to measure different constructs are indeed measuring different constructs (Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

When discriminant validity is carried out, it is to compare the average variance extracted for any two constructs or more with the squaring of the correlations estimate. Therefore, the average variance extracted must be bigger than the variance of the correlation (Hair et al., 2006) because a latent construct should explain its item measures better than it explains other constructs. The measurement models of the construct tested for discriminant validity is shown in Figures 3.22 to 3.25.

A. *OI*

OI comprises the dimension of Similarity and Membership; and the average variance extracted was 0.463.

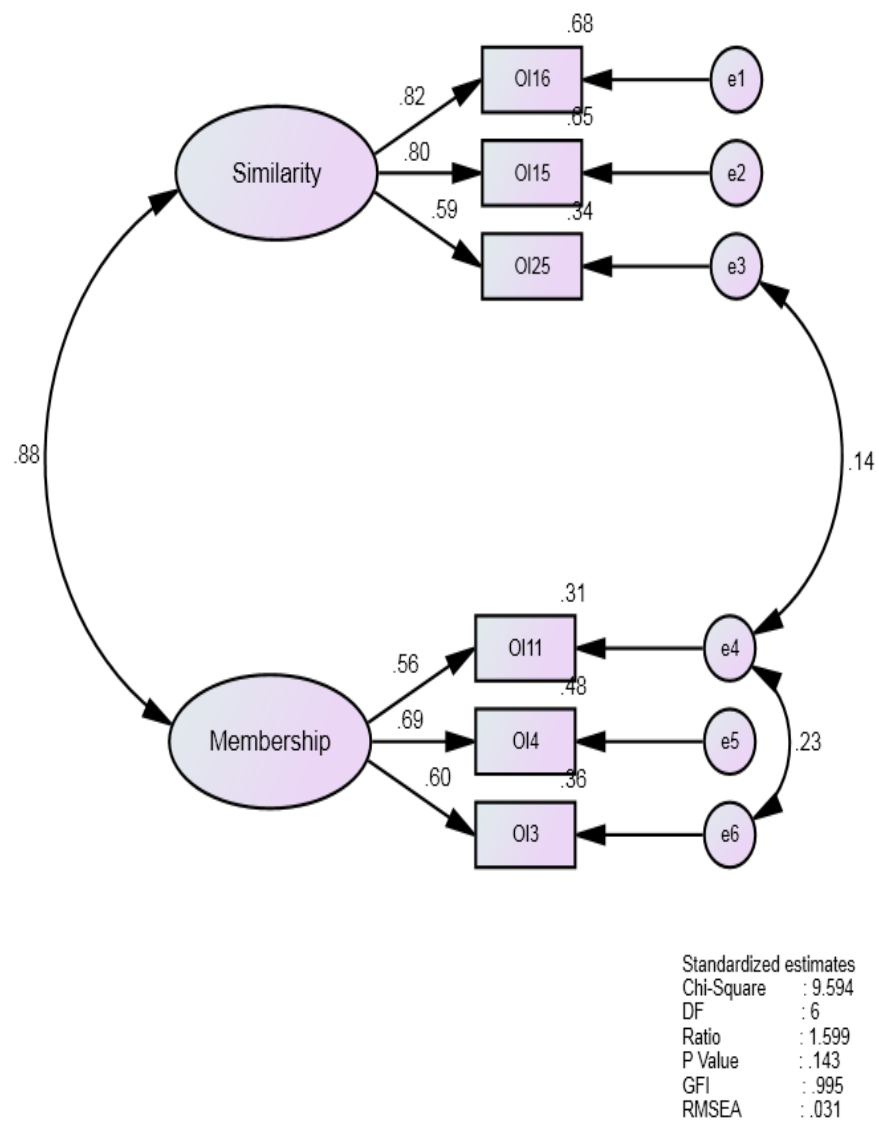


Figure 3.22: Measurement Model for OI

B. OCB

OCB comprises the dimension of Courtesy, Altruism, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship; and Conscientiousness and the average variance extracted was 0.491.

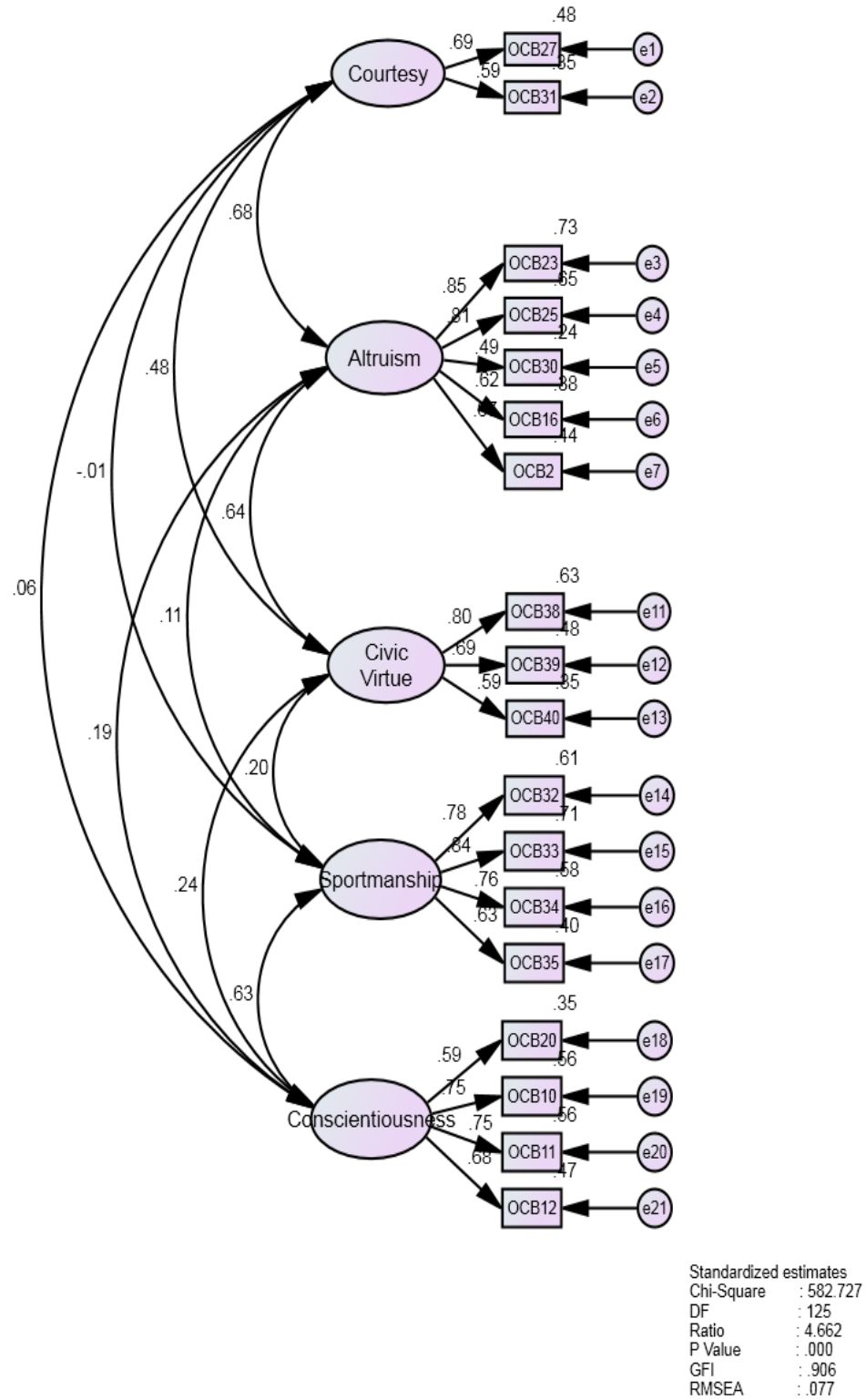


Figure 3.23: Measurement Model for OCB

C. OEB

OEB comprises the dimension of Brand Awareness, Brand Quality, Brand Image, Brand Value, Brand Loyalty and Brand Meaning; and the average variance extracted was 0.608.

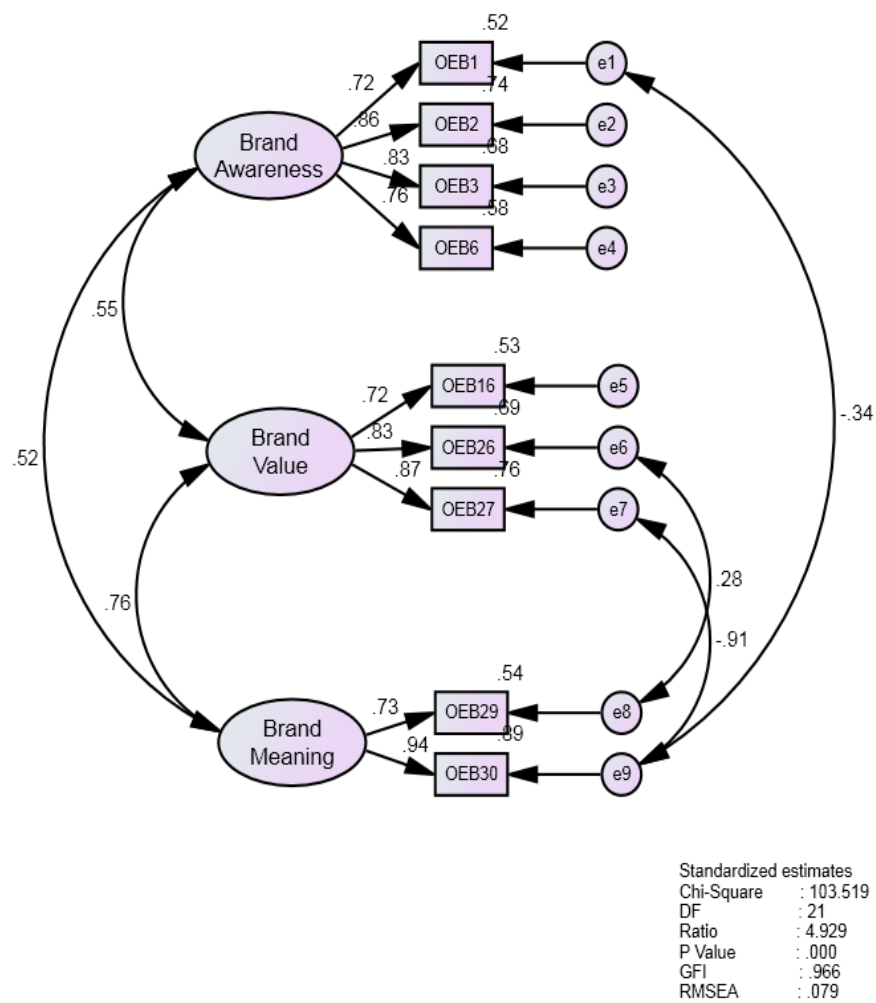


Figure 3.24: Measurement Model for OEB

D. OC

OC comprises the dimension of Affective and Continuance; and the average variance extracted was 0.519.

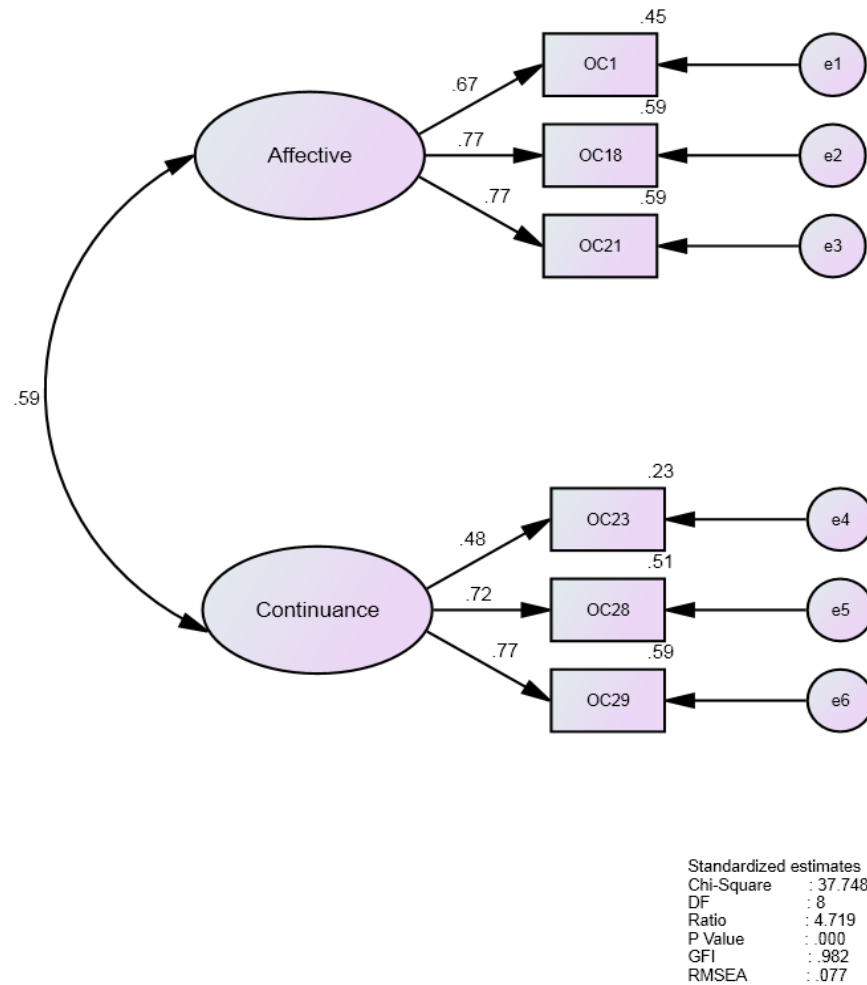


Figure 3.25: Measurement Model for OC

Based on the results, it can be seen that a majority of the AVE for each construct was larger than the covariance between each of the constructs. This suggests that each of the constructs distinctively represent the dimensions of OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

3.12.3 Criterion Validity

Criterion validity was done as the final test of validity on the constructs in this study. It stresses on both the importance of comparing the scale used with criterion variables and understanding the relationship between constructs. The results were also important as further elaboration on the findings of the hypotheses testing. Further, it examines the extent of a scales performance as expected in relation to other selected variables (criterion variable) as the significant criteria (Malhotra, 2006).

Incidentally, criterion validity describes the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the variables. It also anticipates any relationship between the measure and the outcomes. Likewise, a high test score or correlated result displays that the measure meets the criteria that is set.

Two forms of criterion validity exist, namely, concurrent and predictive validity. These two methods differ from one another on the basis of time dimension. For predictive validity, data on scales and criterion variables are gathered at different times, while for concurrent validity, the data on scales and criterion variables are gathered simultaneously. In this study concurrent validity was relevant and correlational analysis was selected to analyze the criterion validity. Correlation analysis was carried out to determine the degree of association between all the constructs as well as the multicollinearity of the independent variables of this study. It does not only indicate the degree of association of the variables but also the direction of the association as well.

Table 3.12: The Pearson Correlation Matrix

	OI F1	OI F2	OCB F1	OCB F2	OCB F3	OCB F4	OCB F5	OEB F1	OEB F2	OEB F3	OEB F4	OEB F5
OIF1	1											
OIF2	0.658**	1										
OCBF1	0.250**	0.434**	1									
OCBF2	0.382**	0.462**	0.576**	1								
OCBF3	0.386**	0.514**	0.524**	0.578**	1							
OCBF4	0.161**	0.212**	0.022	0.122**	0.178**	1						
OCBF5	0.162**	0.166**	0.094**	0.178**	0.186**	0.532**	1					
OEBF1	0.505**	0.579**	0.400**	0.552**	0.525**	0.141**	0.116**	1				
OEBF2	0.611**	0.507**	0.064	0.208**	0.278**	0.075	0.089*	0.485**	1			
OEBF3	0.542**	0.485**	0.159**	0.341**	0.305**	0.021	0.007	0.606**	0.705**	1		
OEBF4	0.621**	0.468**	0.191**	0.311**	0.336**	0.046	0.110	0.516**	0.663**	0.681**	1	
OEBF5	0.702**	0.581**	0.192**	0.337**	0.369**	0.171**	0.129**	0.530**	0.690**	0.638**	0.679**	1
OEBF6	0.588**	0.490**	0.092**	0.200**	0.286**	0.121**	0.029	0.495**	0.735**	0.611**	0.700**	0.702**
OCF1	0.637**	0.487**	0.110**	0.243**	0.284**	0.067	0.038	0.398**	0.601**	0.665**	0.672**	0.690**
OCF2	0.373**	0.276**	0.016	0.130**	0.222**	0.007	0.074**	0.292**	0.510**	0.410**	0.461**	0.441**

The results of the correlation coefficients that fall between ± 1 and ± 0.81 are generally considered to be “very high” and this will create multicollinearity in the data (Burns & Bush, 2000). However, those correlation coefficients of ± 0.5 and above will also reflect strong correlations between the two variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Thus, to simplify the interpretation of the correlation coefficient, Cohen and Cohen (1983) suggests that the correlation coefficient values; $r = \pm 0.10$ to ± 0.29 as small correlation; $r = \pm 0.30$ to ± 0.49 as medium correlation; and $r = \pm 0.50$ to ± 1.0 as large correlation.

Table 3.12 depicts the relationship between the constructs of the study and it was evident that there is absence of very strong correlation (0.8 and above) between any pairs of the twelve variables in this study. Consequently, multicollinearity was unlikely to take place to influence the interpretation in further analysis. All in all, the results illustrate that 39 out of 42 correlation coefficient values were significant at .01 levels, and three correlation coefficient values were found to be non-significant.

The results of the correlation show the existence of significant relationships among constructs and that they are congruent with the hypotheses of this study.

3.13 Reliability

Reliability of a measurement refers to its consistency (Hair et al, 2006). There are two types of reliability namely external and internal consistency. External reliability refers to “the degree of consistency of a measure over time” (Bryman & Cramer, 2001, p. 62-63). External reliability can be examined through a test-retest. This is done by administering a test on two different occasions on the same group of subjects. It is expected that respondents who scored high on the first test should also score the same

when taking the same test but at a different time. Nevertheless, a low test-retest correlation may not indicate that the reliability of the test is low; instead it may signify that the underlying theoretical concept itself has changed (Bryman & Cramer, 2001).

An alternative method is to check the external reliability. This method refers to two different forms which are constructed and administered to the same respondents at different times. The correlation coefficient is tested and the higher the results that are obtained, the greater the reliability. However, this method is very costly and time consuming (Malhotra, 2006).

Internal reliability, on the other hand, is specifically used in multi-item scales. It refers to whether the items that makes up the scale measures a single concept or whether those items are internally consistent (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). Estimates of reliability that are based on the average correlation among items within a test will concern internal consistencies. If the correlation gives a high result, then the internal consistency is also high. The most frequently used measure is Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha which is derived from the assumption that if all the items are drawn from the domain of a single construct, responses to the items composing the measurement model should be highly correlated (Hatcher, 1994). In addition, to check the internal reliability, the composite reliability and variance extracted measures for each construct must also be examined. In the context of CFA, it is possible to compute a composite reliability index for each latent variable. Both these methods were applied to test the reliability of the scales in this study.

3.13.1 Internal Consistency Reliability Tests: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha

The results of the internal consistency reliability test for the variables that examine the fifteen factors are obtained from the exploratory factor analysis. The reliability test for all dimensions recorded excellent reliability with coefficient alphas of above 0.60 as recommended by Nunnally (1967). Table 3.13 exhibits the results of Cronbach Coefficient Alpha.

Table 3.13: Internal Consistency Reliability of OI, OCB, OEB and OC

Variables	No of items	Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha
OI		
Similarity	6	0.840
Membership	5	0.796
OCB		
Courtesy	6	0.831
Altruism	5	0.799
Civic Virtue	5	0.793
Sportsmanship	4	0.836
Conscientiousness	4	0.783
OEB		
Brand Awareness	4	0.863
Brand Quality	5	0.907
Brand Image	4	0.887
Brand Value	4	0.871
Brand Loyalty	4	0.824
Brand Meaning	4	0.829
OC		
Affective	4	0.843
Continuance	4	0.725

3.13.2 Reliability Test: Using Structural Equation Modeling

Coefficient alpha is usually used by researches as an index of scale reliability. However, it has three limitations; a) the accuracy of reliability estimation, it tends to underestimate scale reliability and gets inflated if the scale has a large number of items; b) traditional reliability theory defines reliability as consistency, and consistency is very difficult to test and to operationalize; and c) coefficient alpha assumes that all items have equal reliabilities (Bollen, 1989). Reliability is also an indicator of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006) and SEM approaches to estimating scale and item

reliability are designed to overcome limitations that are associated with coefficient alpha.

In SEM, the value associated with each latent variable-to-item equation measures the reliability of that individual item (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). The stronger the correlation of the systematic component, the higher will the reliability associated with the indicator to its latent variable is. Thus, in this study, the results of construct reliability that is often used in combination with SEM models, are also presented in order to prove that convergent validity exist for the constructs of study. It is computed from the squared sum of factor loading (λ_i) for each construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct (δ_i) whereby the measurement error is one minus the square of the indicator's standardised parameter estimate, as;

$$\text{Construct Reliability} = \frac{\sum \lambda_i^2}{\sum \lambda_i^2 + \sum \delta_i^2}$$

The rule of thumb for the reliability estimates is 0.70 or higher and this will suggest a good reliability (Hair et al., 2006). However, Hatcher (1994) asserts that the reliability estimates of 0.60 and above is also considered reasonable. Table 3.14 presents the results of the construct reliability, namely, OI, OCB, OEB and OC. Table 3.15 presents the comparison on results of construct reliability and internal consistency reliability, namely, OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

Table 3.14: Variance Extracted and Construct Reliability for OI, OCB, OEB and OC

Constructs	Variance Extracted	Construct Reliability
Similarity	0.481	0.845
Membership	0.445	0.798
Courtesy	0.461	0.835
Altruism	0.487	0.820
Civic Virtue	0.450	0.799
Sportsmanship	0.573	0.841
Conscientiousness	0.485	0.788
Brand Awareness	0.628	0.870
Brand Quality	0.668	0.909
Brand Image	0.614	0.888
Brand Value	0.638	0.875
Brand Loyalty	0.576	0.843
Brand Meaning	0.525	0.811
Affective	0.582	0.847
Continuance	0.455	0.761

Table 3.15: Internal Consistency Reliability and Construct Reliability for OI, OCB, OEB and OC

Constructs	Internal Consistency Reliability	Construct Reliability
Similarity	0.840	0.845
Membership	0.796	0.798
Courtesy	0.831	0.835
Altruism	0.799	0.820
Civic Virtue	0.793	0.799
Sportsmanship	0.836	0.841
Conscientiousness	0.783	0.788
Brand Awareness	0.863	0.870
Brand Quality	0.907	0.909
Brand Image	0.887	0.888
Brand Value	0.871	0.875
Brand Loyalty	0.824	0.843
Brand Meaning	0.829	0.811
Affective	0.843	0.847
Continuance	0.725	0.761

As seen in the results, the construct reliability value for all latent variables or factors in this study were above 0.60, as suggested by Hatcher (1994). This is to prove for the existence of reliability. A corresponding measure of construct reliability is the variance extract measure (Hair et al., 2006). It measures the total amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent variable. Higher values occur when the indicators are truly representative of the latent construct. The formula can be compared to construct reliability, except that the numerator is equal to the standardized parameter estimates (λ) between the latent variable and its indicators squared, and then summed.

The denominator equals the numerator plus the added measurement error for each item. Finally, the measurement error is one minus the square of the indicator's standardized parameter estimate.

$$\text{Variance Extract} = \frac{\sum_{i=1} \lambda^2}{\sum_{i=1} \lambda^2 + \sum_{i=1} (1 - \lambda^2)}$$

By using the same logic, a variance extracted which is less than 0.50 indicates that, on average, more error remains in the items than the variance explained by the latent factor structure in the measurement model (Hair et al., 2006). Table 3.15 shows the results of the variance extract. Some of the variance extract estimates of that constructs were below 0.50. However, Hatcher (1994) posits that this situation did not cause concern since previous studies show that it is quite frequent to find estimates below 0.50 even when the construct reliability is acceptable.

3.14 Chapter Summary

The first part of this chapter revolves around the research methodology. It includes discussion relating to the issues of research design, research instrument, the techniques involved in sampling and data collection. The next part includes a detail outlining of the measurement scales that are used for the constructs. Finally, part three discusses the validity and reliability assessment to make certain the validity and reliability of the scale used in the research. It provides details of the tests used to examine the validity and reliability of each construct in which the methods of assessment, including the EFA and CFA, are explained in detail.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

The assumptions of the multivariate analysis checks are presented before the report on the results of the hypotheses. The ordinary least square regression is carried out to test the relationship between the variables. In addition, the structural equation modeling is adopted to investigate the structural relationships among exogenous, mediating and endogenous variables. The model is then used to test the hypotheses and to confirm the interaction effects among variables in the hypothesized and re-specified model.

4.1 Profile of the Respondents

The respondents' profile is shown in Table 4.1 and the variables are collapsed into categorical variables.

From the 624 respondents, the majority (57.9%) are males. Almost 47.3 percent of the respondents' age is between 21 to 25 years old. Moreover, about 46.2 percent of the respondents are Malays. Meanwhile, most of the respondents (40.5%) completed the undergraduate degree program and 30.9 percent of them have worked in that particular hotel for less than a year. The majority of the respondents are from 3-star hotels (51.8%) and most of the respondents (42.6%) have a monthly income ranging from RM1500 to RM2999.

Table 4.1: Profile of the Respondents (N=624)

Respondent's Profile	Number	Percentage
1. Gender		
• Male	361	57.9
• Female	263	42.1
2. Age		
• 21-25 years old	295	47.3
• 26-30 years old	108	17.3
• 31-35 years old	68	10.9
• 36-40 years old	67	10.7
• Above 40 years old	86	13.8
3. Ethnicity		
• Malay	288	46.2
• Chinese	143	22.9
• Indian	72	11.5
• Others	121	19.4
4. Education Level		
• High School	168	26.9
• Diploma	161	25.8
• Undergraduate Degree	253	40.5
• Postgraduate Degree	21	3.4
• Others	21	3.4
5. Monthly Income		
• Less than RM1500	225	36.1
• RM1500-2999	266	42.6
• RM3000-RM4999	71	11.4
• Above RM5000	62	9.9
6. Tenure of Service		
• Less than 1 year	193	30.9
• 1-2 years	153	24.5
• 2-3 years	63	10.1
• 3-4 years	20	3.2
• 4-5 years	50	8.0
• More than 5 years	145	23.2
7. Hotel Star Rating		
• 3-star	323	51.8
• 4-star	60	9.6
• 5-star	241	38.6

4.2 Statistical Analysis of Propositions and Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses of the study, multiple regression and SEM methods are used.

Both methods are explained below before the results of the hypotheses are presented.

4.2.1 Multiple Regression Analyses

Regression analysis is a powerful statistical technique that can assess the dependency of one variable on the other (Hair et al., 2006). Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) are of the view that depending on the complexity of the analysis, regression is categorized into simple and multiple regressions. Thus, to access the relationship between one dependent (criterion) variable and another single independent (predictor) variable, simple regression analysis can be used. On the contrary, in situations where several independent variables are considered to predict a dependent variable, then multiple regression analysis can be applied.

Before multiple regression analysis is conducted, the data is examined to ensure that the basic assumptions of multiple regressions are met (Hair et al., 2006). Several assumptions of violation which includes normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity and outliers are discussed to give a better data interpretation.

4.2.1.1 Assumptions of Multivariate Analysis

Before multivariate analysis is performed, several assumptions regarding the use of multivariate statistical tools namely multicollinearity, outliers, linearity, normality and homoscedasticity must be met (Hair et al., 2006).

4.2.1.1.1 Linearity, Homoscedasticity and Normality

Linearity of the relationship among each of the variables can be done by using scatter plots. In a multivariate analysis, an examination of the actual standardized residual values of Y against the predicted residual values of Y will indicate a non-linear relationship. The relationship between the two variables should be linear and must

portray a straight line (Pallant, 2007). Visual inspections of the bivariate scatter plots show that there was no U-shaped distribution to indicate a curvilinear relationship. A non-linear pattern to the residuals was not found when the use of an analysis of residuals and partial regression plots was done. This illustrates that the assumption of linearity is not violated.

Homoscedasticity means that the variability in the scores for variable X should be similar for all values of variable Y. This can be checked by examining the scatter plot. Heteroscedacity is the opposite of homoscedasticity. A visual inspection of the scatter plots did not show any pattern of an increase or a decrease in residuals, i.e., no discernible patterns of residuals was noted. This shows that homoscedasticity does exist for the independent variables of this study.

The analysis of normality, that is, the normal probability-plot (P-P) for standardized residuals was also examined. This is to determine the normality of the variables. Hair et al. (2006) mention that a more reliable approaches to diagnose the normality is by using the normal probability plot. This plot compares the cumulative distribution of actual data values with the cumulative distribution of a normal distribution. Pallant (2007) suggests that a check for the normality assumptions must involve inspecting the Normal Probability Plot of the regression standardized residuals.

4.2.1.1.2 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is the expression of the relationship between two or more independent variables. Multicollinearity among variables can turn out to be a problem since high correlation among clustering variables may outweigh one or more underlying constructs. Two variables will exhibit complete collinearity if their correlation coefficient is one (Hair et al., 2006). Multicollinearity occurs when inter-correlations among some variables are very high that certain mathematical operations are either impossible or the results are unstable. This is because some denominators are very close to zero (Kline, 1998). A high score of multicollinearity may result in bias on the regression of coefficient, in that, standard errors and confidence intervals will be big and the significant level will be low (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A low multicollinearity shows that independent variables are independent of each other.

Kline (1998) and Hair et al. (2006) suggest that assessing the multicollinearity in the multivariate level is as straightforward and easy as detecting it in the bivariate level. One of the ways used in detecting multicollinearity is to check on the variables tolerance value. Tolerance can be defined as the amount of variability of the selected independent variable that is unexplained by other independent variables (Hair et al., 2006). If the tolerance values are less than 10 percent or 0.1, this will indicate a multicollinearity problem (Kline, 1998).

In addition, to assess multicollinearity, this study also uses the value of the variance of inflation (hereinafter VIF). The VIF is the variance inflation factor, which is the reciprocal of tolerance. It is the ratio of a variable's total variance in standardised terms to its unique variance. Therefore, the higher the VIF, the higher is the multicollinearity. Kline (1998) suggests that if the VIF values are above 10, then the variables may be

redundant. Table 4.2 illustrates the multicollinearity test of the items in the OI, OCB and OEB.

Table 4.2: Multicollinearity Diagnostics

Collinearity Statistics		
Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Organizational Identity		
Similarity	0.555	1.802
Membership	0.536	1.867
Organizational Citizenship Behavior		
Courtesy	0.751	1.331
Altruism	0.596	1.679
Civic Virtue	0.669	1.495
Sportsmanship	0.691	1.447
Consciousness	0.684	1.463
Organizational Employer Branding		
Brand Awareness	0.501	1.996
Brand Value	0.489	2.046
Brand Meaning	0.455	2.199

Based on Table 4.2, there was no problem in multicollinearity since the tolerance values are above 0.10 and VIF values are below 10.

4.2.1.1.3 Outliers

The value of standardized residual from case wise diagnostics is used to measure the outliers in the sample. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) explain that a case with values that exceeds ± 3.3 is considered an outlying case. However, the results from the analysis indicate that no case is an outlier.

4.2.1.2 Distributions of the Study Variables

Prior to doing the statistical analyses in this study i.e. multiple regression and SEM, it is important to check that the data used does not violate any of the ‘assumptions’ made by the individual test (Pallant, 2007). Testing of assumptions normally involves obtaining

descriptive statistics of the variables. The selected descriptive statistics used in this study are skewness and kurtosis.

4.2.1.2.1 Skewness and Kurtosis

The skewness and kurtosis for each variable are scrutinized in order to assess the normality of the distribution of the data. The functions of these two tools check the shape of the distribution of the scores and are further used with interval and ratio level data. For the calculated skewness and kurtosis values, zero assumes perfect normality in the data distribution (which is seldom achieved), ± 2.58 indicates rejecting the normality assumption at the .01 probability level and ± 1.96 signifies a .05 error level (Hair et al., 2006).

Skewness provides an indication of the symmetry of the distribution. A positively skewed distribution has a relatively small number of large values and tails off to the right, and a negatively skewed distribution has a relatively small number of small values and tails off to the left. By applying the above criteria to the skewness values for each of the study variables, it shows that none of the variables fall outside the ± 2.58 range of skewness. Thus, the data for this study is normal with regards to skewness.

Kurtosis, on the other hand, refers to the “peakedness” or “flatness” of the distribution compared with the normal distribution. According to Hair et al (2006) distributions that are taller or more peaked than the normal distribution are termed *leptokurtic*, while a distribution that is flatter is termed *platykurtic*. Basically, it measures the height of the distribution. A positive value indicates a relatively peaked distribution which is clustered in the centre and with long thin tails. On the contrary, a negative value indicates a relatively flat distribution. The same criteria for skewness were applied to the kurtosis values for each variable. From the results, it was clear that none of the

variables fall outside the range ± 2.58 range of kurtosis. Therefore, the data for this study were also normal with regards to kurtosis. Table 4.3 summarizes the skewness and kurtosis for the study's variables.

Table 4.3: Skewness and Kurtosis of the Variables

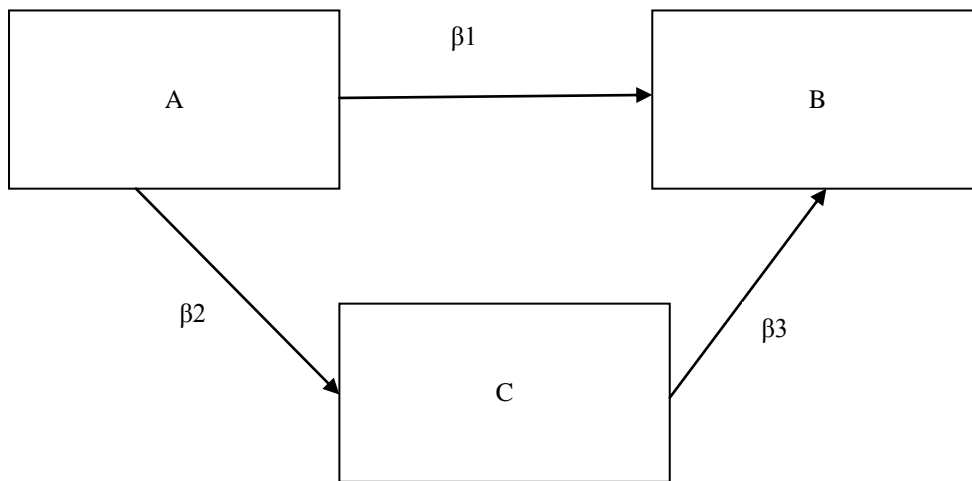
Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Organizational Identity	-0.360	-0.193
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	0.372	-0.455
Organizational Employer Branding	-0.535	0.071
Organizational Commitment	-0.253	-0.249

4.2.2 Structural Equation Modeling

To analyze the mediating roles of the study, SEM via AMOS version 20 is adopted. SEM is referred to as a powerful combination of multiple regression, path and factor analysis. It is characterized by two steps, namely the validating measurement models and fitting structural models (Hoyle, 1995).

The measurement model discussed earlier is to construct ways of measuring concepts in a reliable and valid manner. Furthermore, the measurement model is a critical step in developing a SEM model, and this process is accomplished as has been discussed in the validity section. The next step in SEM is to specify the structural model by assigning relationships from one construct to another based on the proposed theoretical model. In general, this technique permits the analysis of groups of independent variables and dependent variables simultaneously (Hair et al., 2006; Hoyle, 1995).

SEM provides information on the model fit and variance explains (R^2) that helps in explaining or predicting the variance in variables. The standardized regression coefficient (β) that is produced also explains the relationship as direct, indirect and total effects. Figure 4.1 exhibits a diagrammatic explanation of the effects.



$$\beta_1 = \text{Direct Effect}; \text{Indirect Effect} = \beta_2 * \beta_3; \text{Total Effect} = \beta_1 + (\beta_2 * \beta_3)$$

Figure 4. 1: Direct and Indirect Effects

Direct effects represent the direct effect of one variable upon another variable. It shows a direct link between an independent variable to a dependent variable. This direct relationship is then measured by a structure coefficient or path coefficient which is the computed relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. Indirect effects are relationships that involve a sequence of relationships with at least one intervening construct. Indirect effects are consistent with mediation (Hair et al., 2006; Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006; Bagozzi, 1980) the magnitude of these effects is given by the product of the standardized coefficients of the path that links the two variables (Bentler, 1995). On the other hand, total effects are the sum of all direct effects and indirect effects of one variable upon another.

Indirect effect or a mediating effect helps the researchers by explaining how and why the effect or relationship takes place (Hair et al., 2006). Any model that includes a mediated relationship of the form $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ (e.g., full mediation) (Baron and Kenny, 1986) can, and should be tested against the partial mediated model which also includes a path from A to C (Kelloway, 1995; Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006). Mediational analyses can be performed with either the multiple regression or SEM. However, SEM is the

preferred method (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006) because it can control measurement error, provides information on the degree of fit of the entire model, and is much more flexible compared to regression (Frazier, Barron, & Tix, 2004). Essentially, SEM does allow for the use of multiple predictor variables, and multiple mediators (MacKinnon, 2000) which are suitable for the model of this study.

Baron and Kenny (1986) explain the procedures for mediation and set out four steps to establish mediation:

1. The independent variable affects the dependent variable.
2. The independent variable affects the mediator
3. The mediator affects the dependent variable
4. To establish that the mediator completely mediates the independent-dependent relationship.

Full mediation occurs when the independent variable has no significant effect when the mediator is in the equation. On the other hand, partial mediation occurs when the effect of the independent variable is smaller but significant when the mediator is in the equation. Thus, in testing the mediation, the focus should firstly be on the chi-square differences test, then the indices of the fit statistics and lastly, the examination of the statistical significance of the paths (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

In this study, the mediation effect involved perceived OEB with two independent variables (OI and OCB). The discussion on the mediation test is explained in the results and discussion section.

4.2.2.1 Stages of Structural Equation Modeling

Path and a full SEM are considered in finding a model that parsimoniously fits the data and is able to provide the best justification on the relationship of the model.

4.2.2.1.1 Model Specification

The relationship in the hypothesized model was derived from a wide literature search at the beginning of the research. These procedures were very crucial as they assisted the formulation of the hypotheses that were applied to specify the theoretical relationships in the SEM.

4.2.2.1.2 Assessment of Model Fit

Absolute fit, model parsimonious and incremental fit are the goodness of fit measures employed to analyze the model fit. The goodness of fit has been explained clearly in chapter three in which Table 3.5 explains in detail the characteristics of the goodness of fit measure.

4.2.2.1.3 Model Re-Specification and Modification

Researchers may wish to examine possible modifications to improve the theoretical explanation or to improve the goodness-of-fit. If the measurement model possesses an unacceptable fit, standardized residual and modification indices can help the researcher to determine why the model is not accepted. Garver and Mentzer (1999) contend that when examining standardized residuals and modification indices, theoretical considerations should always be used as the primary consideration in making model modifications.

In examining standardized residuals, patterns of large residuals should be taken into consideration. A large residual will be over 2.00 and 2.58, and are considered as a statistical significant at the .05 level (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). Significant residual indicates a substantial prediction error for a pair of indicators. Items with cross-loading or corresponding to more than one factor will show large residuals with different items from different factors and should be deleted from the model. If the modification is implemented, the model should then be re-specified and re-evaluated after each modification (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Modification indices (hereinafter MI) are very helpful in determining how to modify the measurement model. A substantial modification index value of 7.88 is considered to be a significant model improvement (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). However, Hair et al. (2006) recommend that modification indices of approximately four or more will improve the model significantly by freeing that particular corresponding path. The largest MI indicates the greatest improvement in fit and these items should be assessed for modification first, if and only if, the modification is consistent with a priori theory or can be interpreted substantively (Bryne, 2001). The model being similar to the standardized residual modification should be re-evaluated after each re-specification through MI (Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

4.3 Structural Equation of Hypothesized and Re-Specified Model

A structural equation model in this study is a complete path model which can be depicted in a path diagram. It differs from the simple path analysis in that all variables are latent variables measured by multiple indicators which have associated error terms in addition to the residual error factor that is connected to the latent endogenous variable.

Figures 4.2 and 4.3 shows a structural equation model for two exogenous constructs of OI and OCB (each measured by indicators) and the interactions with OEB as the mediating variable and as cause of one endogenous (OC).

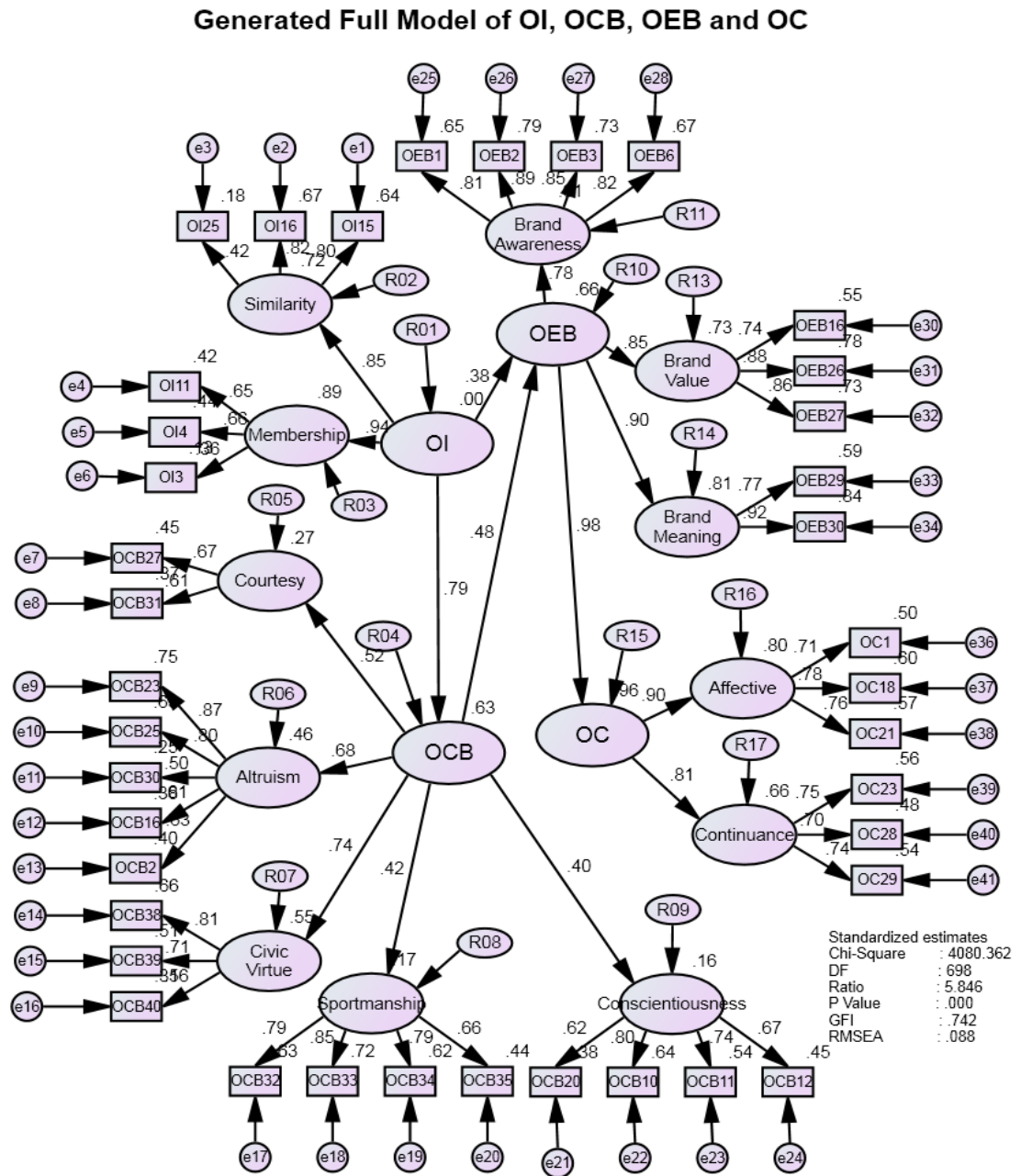


Figure 4.2: Generated Full Model of the Mediating effect of OEB in the Relationship between OI and OCB to OC of Employees

A SEM diagram in this study has certain standard elements: latents are ellipses, indicators are rectangles, error and residual terms are circles, single-headed arrows are

causal relations (note causality goes from latent to its indicators), and double-headed arrows are correlations between indicators or between exogenous latents. Path coefficient values may be placed on the arrows from latents to indicators, or from one latent to another, or from an error term to an indicator, or from a residual term to a latent. Furthermore, the implied covariance matrix is computed from the path coefficients in the model using the multiplication rule in path analysis: the effect size of a path is the product of its path coefficients. The multiplication rule for any given model generates the implied matrix, from which the actual sample covariance matrix is subtracted and the residual matrix is yielded (Hair et al., 2006).

The smaller the values in the present residual matrix, the better will the fitting are for the model. Jaccard and Wan (1996) is of the view that regression may be preferred to structural equation modeling when there are substantial departures from the SEM assumptions of multivariate normality of the indicators and/or small sample sizes, and also when measurement error is less of a concern because the measures have a high reliability. Figure 4.2 shows the generated full model.

The structural model output displayed in Figure 4.2 shows that the model fails to explain a substantial portion of the variance in all the endogenous variables (square multiple correlations).

Furthermore, in Figure 4.3, based on the modification index of CFA, the measurement model of exogenous and endogenous and the re-specified model as the examination of the hypothesized model confirmed the constructs of OI, OCB, OEB and OC of the hypothesized paths. In SEM, factor analysis and hypotheses are tested in the same analysis. SEM techniques also provide fuller information about the extent to which the research model is supported by the data.

The structural model output displayed in Figure 4.3 shows that the model explained a substantial portion of the variance in all the endogenous variables (square multiple correlations). The SMC confirmed the significant OEB (71.5%) and OC (89.5%). This model is shown in Figure 4.3 with the standardized path coefficients and its significant level on causal paths. Table 4.4 summarizes the goodness of fit statistics of the re-specified model.

Table 4.4: Model Goodness-of-fit Statistics of Re-Specified Model

Model Fit Indicator	Re-specified Model
CMIN (χ^2)	745.675
DF	174
CMIN/DF	4.285
PROB	0.000
GFI	0.900
TLI	0.860
CFI	0.884
RMSEA	0.073

Goodness of fit indices for the 21 observed variables of OI, OCB, OEB and OC shows that the reading is good if it ranges from 0.478 to 0.931 for the significance standardized regressions weight. Standard error (SE) for each observation shows the goodness of fit and low level reading from .030 to 0.184, and estimate (Square Multiple Correlation) of observation shows the contribution level to the latent variable (0.228 to 0.867). Tables 4.5 and 4.6 show the details of goodness observed variable in the model.

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Re-Specified Full Model of OI, OCB, OEB and OC

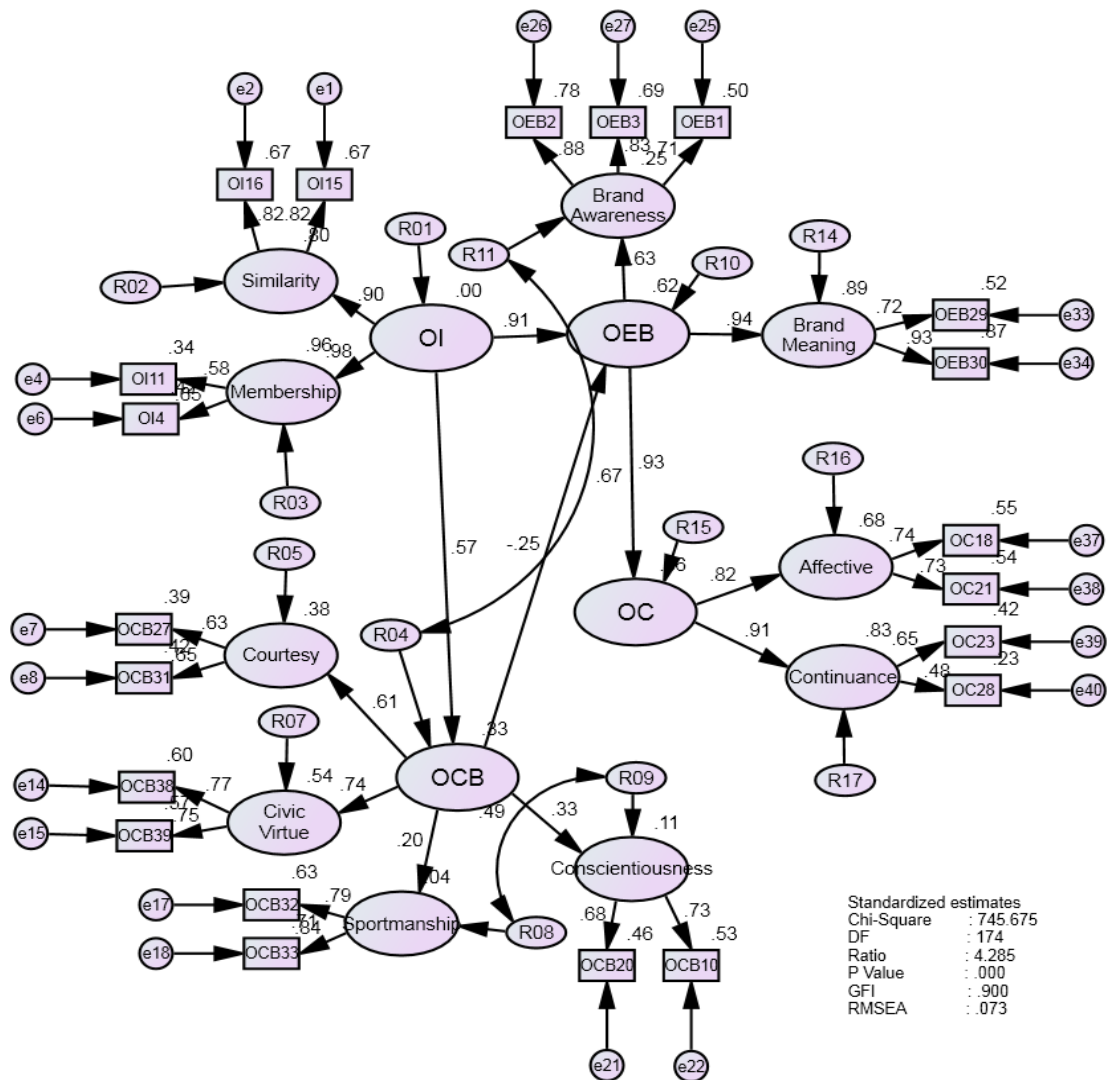


Figure 4.3: Re-Specified Model of the Mediating effect of OEB in the Relationship between OI and OCB to OC of Employees

Table 4.5: Summary of the Observed of Endogenous Variables

Latent Variable	Observed Variable	Standardized Regressions Weight	Estimate	Standard Error	P
OEB	OEB1	0.706	0.498	0.058	0.000
	OEB2	0.882	0.778	0.030	0.000
	OEB3	0.829	0.687	0.032	0.000
	OEB29	0.721	0.520	0.062	0.000
	OEB30	0.931	0.867	0.070	0.000
OC	OC18	0.744	0.553	0.085	0.000
	OC21	0.734	0.539	0.080	0.000
	OC23	0.648	0.420	0.124	0.000
	OC28	0.478	0.228	0.089	0.000

Table 4.6: Summary of the Observed of Exogenous Variables

Latent Variable	Observed Variable	Standardized Regressions Weight	Estimate	Standard Error	P
OI	OI4	0.650	0.423	0.072	0.000
	OI11	0.580	0.337	0.069	0.000
	OI15	0.822	0.675	0.061	0.000
	OI16	0.818	0.670	0.053	0.000
OCB	OCB10	0.730	0.533	0.182	0.000
	OCB20	0.678	0.460	0.184	0.000
	OCB27	0.628	0.395	0.101	0.000
	OCB31	0.648	0.420	0.150	0.000
	OCB32	0.793	0.629	0.146	0.000
	OCB33	0.840	0.706	0.142	0.000
	OCB38	0.774	0.599	0.083	0.000
	OCB39	0.754	0.568	0.080	0.000

The re-specified model output displayed in Figure 4.3 shows the model explained in a substantial portion of the variance in all the endogenous variables (square multiple correlations). Table 4.7 indicates that the two exogenous variables (OI and OCB) jointly explained 62.3% variance in OEB. Subsequently, OI, OCB and OEB collectively explained 86.1% variance in OC of employees.

Table 4.7: Squared Multiple Correlation Results

Endogenous Variable	Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC) = R^2
OEB	0.623
OC	0.861

Finally, from the Structural Model the reading for GFI is at 0.9 (acceptable fit criteria) and RMSEA is less than .08. The measurement model has a good fit with the data based on assessment criteria such as GFI and RMSEA (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Table 4.8 summarizes the goodness of OI, OCB, OEB, OC and the structural model.

Table 4.8: Model Fit Indicator of Re-Specified Model

Model Fit Indicator	Re-Specified Model
CMIN (χ^2)	745.675
DF	174
CMIN/DF	4.285
PROB	0.000
GFI	0.900
TLI	0.860
CFI	0.884
RMSEA	0.073

Table 4.9: Summary of the Goodness Fit to the Structural Model

Model Fit Indicator	OI	OCB	OEB	OC	Generated Model	Re-Specified Model
(χ^2)	189.078	579.699	95.629	8.454	4080.362	745.675
DF	42	118	20	7	698	174
CMIN/DF	4.502	4.913	4.781	1.208	5.846	4.285
P	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.294	0.000	0.000
GFI	0.947	0.912	0.967	0.996	0.742	0.900
TLI	0.928	0.860	0.956	0.997	0.730	0.860
CFI	0.945	0.892	0.976	0.999	0.745	0.884
RMSEA	0.075	0.079	0.078	0.018	0.088	0.073

Table 4.9 shows the journey to the goodness of model fit of the structural model. The structural models testing of endogenous variables (OEB and OC) fulfill the GFI (GFI > 0.90) and RMSEA criteria (less than .08). Furthermore the comparison between generated model (Figure 4.2) and re-specified model (Figure 4.3) confirmed that the final hypothesized model is re-specified which is RMSEA criteria (less than .08) and GFI (0.900) achieved the significant level of the goodness of fit index of the model.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics, Discriminant Validity and Average Variance Extracted of Re-Specified Model

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Descriptive statistics such as mean and percentage used to measure the percentage of variables and also described the mean and standard deviation of endogenous and exogenous variables.

Table 4.10 shows the mean figure of the Organizational Identity (M=5.200; SD=1.277), Organizational Citizenship Behavior (M=4.990; SD=1.488), Organizational Employer Branding (M=5.260; SD=1.260), and Organizational Commitment (M=4.730; SD=1.416). The mean analysis shows that the Organizational Employer Branding has the highest level and Organizational Commitment is the lowest mean of variable.

Table 4.10: Mean of Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviations	No of Final Items
Organizational Identity	5.200	1.277	4
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	4.990	1.488	8
Organizational Employer Branding	5.260	1.260	5
Organizational Commitment	4.730	1.416	4

4.4.2 Discriminant Validity

The AVE statistics can also be used to assess discriminant validity. This is done by calculating the square root of the AVE statistics and comparing these to the correlations among the latent variables (Chin, 1998).

This provides a test of whether more variance is shared between the latent variable and its set of items than with other latent variables represented by a different set of items (Chin, 1998). Table 4.12 shows that the square roots of the AVE's are larger than their respective correlations and this demonstrates adequate discriminant validity. To verify discriminant validity between constructs, AVE should be greater than the squared correlation between a construct and other constructs in the model. Therefore, the square root of the AVE was presented at the diagonal of the correlation matrix for the purpose of comparing the correlation coefficient between constructs (Green, Barclay, & Ryans, 1995). Adequate discriminant validity was evident, because the diagonal elements are greater than the off-diagonal elements in the corresponding rows and columns.

4.4.3 Average Variance Extracted

Applying Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test of average variance extracted from the constructs, the constructs exceeded the square of the structural link between the three constructs, providing support for discriminant validity. The completely standardized

parameters (factor loadings), composite reliability and average variance extracted from both exogenous and endogenous constructs are shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Summary of Composite Reliability and Variance Extracted

Variables	No of Final Items	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Variance Extracted
OI	4	0.813	0.783	0.526
OCB	8	0.902	0.672	0.539
OEB	5	0.909	0.753	0.674
OC	4	0.750	0.693	0.428

Notes:

^a Completely standardized parameter. Square multiple correlations for each measure can be obtained by squaring the completely standardized parameter for the item (factor loadings)

^b Construct reliability computed as $(\sum \lambda)^2 / [(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum \text{var}(\epsilon)]$

^c Average variance extracted, which is the proportion of variance in the construct that is not due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981)

Fornell and Larcker's (1981) composite reliability score was calculated for each latent variable. Composite reliability is a means of assessing the internal consistency of the items of a latent variable (Chin, 1998). In this study, all variables reported a composite reliability score above 0.70 (Table 4.11) and this demonstrates adequate reliability.

Fornell and Larcker (1981) is of the view that the average variance extracted (AVE) measures the "amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error". The AVE can be interpreted as a measure of reliability for a construct and it is recommended that the AVE should be greater than 0.50, which indicates that the construct captures more variance in the items than measurement error (Chin, 1998; Hair et al. 2006). As shown in Table 4.13, the AVE for each construct is 0.50 and above. This indicates that each construct accounts for 50% or more of the variance of the items.

Table 4.12 shows the results of the calculated of variables correlation squared and Table 4.13 shows the results of AVE to support the discriminant validity of constructs. The AVE is the average value extracted values of two constructs. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the AVE should be more than the correlation squared of the two

constructs to support discriminant validity. Each AVE value is found to be more than the correlation square, thus discriminant validity is supported or multicollinearity is absent.

Table 4.12: Correlation and Correlation Squared Matrix of Variables

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
OI(1)	1.00	0.261 (0.068)	0.379 (0.144)	0.449 (0.202)
OCB (2)		1.00	0.228 (0.052)	0.083 (0.007)
OEB (3)			1.00	0.384 (0.147)
OC (4)				1.00

** Correlation is significant at .01 levels (2-tailed), values in brackets indicate correlation squared

Table 4.13: Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
OI(1)	1.00	0.533	0.600	0.477
OCB (2)		1.00	0.607	0.484
OEB (3)			1.00	0.551
OC (4)				1.00

4.5 Results of Hypotheses Testing

Following the recommendation of Anderson and Gerbing (1988), this study uses a comprehensive, two-stage analysis. Firstly, the measurement model was confirmed using the confirmatory factor analysis, and then structural equation modeling was performed based on the measurement model of endogenous and exogenous to estimate the fit of the hypothesized model to the data.

The measurement model which specifies and tests the relationships between the observed measures and their underlying constructs, provides a confirmatory assessment of construct validity (Bentler, 1978). The structural model then tests the direct causal relationships among the latent constructs, as posited by the Anderson and Gerbing's (1982; 1988) theory. Accomplishing the model-building task through a two-step procedure is believed to be an improved approach over a one-step analysis (Anderson &

Gerbing, 1988). The confirmatory analysis of each dimensions were carried out to confirm the construct of OI, OCB, OEB and OC.

The empirical results will now be discussed for each hypothesis in an orderly manner. In this study, all the hypothesized relationships were supported based on the SEM results. The path estimates the hypothesized testing in the model.

4.5.1 Hypothesis 1: Similarity, Membership and Loyalty are the Dimensions of OI

4.5.1.1 Hypothesis 1a: Similarity is a Dimension of OI

Based on Table 4.14, the results of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OI and Similarity ($\beta=0.896$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 1a is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OI confirmed Similarity as construct of OI.

Table 4.14: Similarity is a Dimension of OI

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OI	Similarity	0.896	OI15	0.822	***	Asserted
			OI16	0.818	***	Asserted

4.5.1.2 Hypothesis 1b: Membership is a Dimension of OI

Based on Table 4.15, the result of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OI and Membership ($\beta=0.981$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 1b is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OI confirmed Membership as a construct of OI.

Table 4.15: Membership is a Dimension of OI

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OI	Membership	0.981	OI11	0.580	***	Asserted
			OI4	0.650	***	Asserted

4.5.2 Hypothesis 2: Courtesy, Altruism, Civic Virtue, Sportsmanship and Conscientiousness are the Dimensions of OCB

4.5.2.1 Hypothesis 2a: Courtesy is a Dimension of OCB

Based on Table 4.16, the results of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OCB and Courtesy ($\beta=0.614$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 2a is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OCB confirmed Courtesy as a construct of OCB.

Table 4.16: Courtesy is a Dimension of OCB

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OCB	Courtesy	0.614	OCB27	0.628	***	Asserted
			OCB31	0.648	***	Asserted

4.5.2.2 Hypothesis 2b: Civic Virtue is a Dimension of OCB

Based on Table 4.17, the results of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OCB and Civic Virtue ($\beta=0.736$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 2b is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OCB confirmed Civic Virtue as a construct of OCB.

Table 4.17: Civic Virtue is a Dimension of OCB

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OCB	Civic Virtue	0.736	OCB39	0.754	***	Asserted
			OCB38	0.774	***	Asserted

4.5.2.3 Hypothesis 2c: Sportsmanship is a Dimension of OCB

Based on Table 4.18, the results of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OCB and Sportsmanship ($\beta=0.197$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 2c is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OCB confirmed Sportsmanship as a construct of OCB.

Table 4.18: Sportsmanship is a Dimension of OCB

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OCB	Sportsmanship	0.197	OCB33	0.840	***	Asserted
			OCB32	0.793	***	Asserted

4.5.2.4 Hypothesis 2d: Conscientiousness is a Dimension of OCB

Based on Table 4.19, the results of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OCB and Conscientiousness ($\beta=0.333$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 2d is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OCB confirmed Conscientiousness as a construct of OCB.

Table 4.19: Conscientiousness is a Dimension of OCB

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OCB	Conscientiousness	0.333	OCB22	0.616	***	Asserted
			OCB4	0.703	***	Asserted

4.5.3 Hypothesis 3: Brand Awareness, Brand Quality, Brand Image, Brand Value, Brand Loyalty and Brand Meaning are the Dimension of OEB

4.5.3.1 Hypothesis 3a: Brand Awareness is a Dimension of OEB

Based on Table 4.20, the results of the path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OEB and Brand Awareness ($\beta=0.632$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 3a is*

asserted). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OEB confirmed Brand Awareness as a construct of OEB.

Table 4.20: Brand Awareness is a Dimension of OEB

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OEB	Brand Awareness	0.632	OEB 1	0.706	***	Asserted
			OEB2	0.882	***	Asserted
			OEB3	0.829	***	Asserted

4.5.3.2 Hypothesis 3b: Brand Meaning is a Dimension of OEB

Based on table 4.21, the results of path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OEB and Brand Meaning ($\beta=0.945$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 3b is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OEB confirmed Brand Meaning as a construct of OEB.

Table 4.21: Brand Meaning is a Dimension of OEB

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OEB	Brand Meaning	0.945	OEB29	0.721	***	Asserted
			OEB30	0.931	***	Asserted

4.5.4 Hypothesis 4: Affective, Continuance and Normative Confirm are the Dimensions of OC

4.5.4.1 Hypothesis 4a: Affective is a Dimension of OC

Based on Table 4.22, the results of the path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OC and Affective ($\beta=0.824$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 4a is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OC confirmed Affective as a construct of OC.

Table 4.22: Affective is a Dimension of OC

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OC	Affective	0.824	OC18	0.744	***	Asserted
			OC21	0.734	***	Asserted

4.5.4.2 Hypothesis 4b: Continuance is a Dimension of OC

Based on Table 4.23, the results of the path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OC and Continuance ($\beta=0.913$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 4b is asserted*). In conclusion, the significant of 2nd order analysis of OC confirmed Continuance as a construct of OC.

Table 4.23: Continuance is a Dimension of OC

Variable	Dimension	Standardized Regression Weight (β)	Items	Standardized Regression Weight (λ)	P	Status of Hypothesis
OC	Continuance	0.913	OC23	0.648	***	Asserted
			OC28	0.478	***	Asserted

4.5.5 Hypothesis 5: OI Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OCB

Based on Table 4.24, the results of the path analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between OI and OCB ($\beta=0.643$, $P=0.000$) (*Hypothesis 5 is asserted*). In conclusion, the direct positive relationship between OI and OCB were supported by the data. This is consistent with the studies of Lipponen, Olkkonen and Moilanen (2004), and Bellou and Thenopoulus (2006).

Table 4.24: OI Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OCB

Exogenous	Endogenous	Std. Estimate	Std. Error	CR	SMC	P	Status of Hypothesis
OI	OCB	0.643	0.059	8.022	0.414	0.000	Asserted

4.5.6 Hypothesis 6: OI Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OEB

The results indicated a significant positive relationship between OI and OEB ($\beta=0.886$, $P = 0.000$) (*Hypothesis 6 is asserted*).

Table 4.25: OI Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OEB

Exogenous	Endogenous	Std. Estimate	Std. Error	CR	SMC	P	Status of Hypothesis
OI	OEB	0.886	0.075	7.786	0.071	0.000	Asserted

4.5.7 Hypothesis 7: OCB Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OEB

The hypothesized path, from OCB to OEB of employees was not supported ($\beta=-.070$, $P = 0.391$) There is a direct negative non significance relationship between OCB and OEB (*Hypothesis 7 is rejected*).

Table 4.26: OCB Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OEB

Exogenous	Endogenous	Std. Estimate	Std. Error	CR	SMC	P	Status of Hypothesis
OCB	OEB	-0.070	0.072	-0.858	0.711	0.391	Rejected

4.5.8 Hypothesis 8: OEB Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OC

On the other hand, OEB has a direct significant impact on OC of employees ($\beta=0.945$, $P = 0.000$). Hence, H8 is asserted. Hypothesis 8 predicted a positive relationship between OEB and OC.

Table 4.27: OEB Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OC

Exogenous	Endogenous	Std. Estimate	Std. Error	CR	SMC	P	Status of Hypothesis
OEB	OC	0.945	0.158	11.077	0.893	0.000	Asserted

4.5.9 Hypothesis 9: There are Relationships between OI and OCB with OEB

Correlation and multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between OEB, OI and OCB. Table 4.28 summarizes the descriptive statistics and analysis results. As can be seen, each of OI and OCB is positively and significantly correlated with the criterion indicating that those with high OI and OCB tend to have higher OEB. The multiple regression model with all two predictors produced adjusted $R^2 = 0.311$, $p < .001$. As can be seen in Table 4.28, the OI and OCB scales had significant positive regression weights, indicating employees with higher OI and OCB were expected to have higher OEB.

Table 4.28: Relationships between OI and OCB with OEB

Hypothesized Path	β	Beta	Sig
OI→OEB	0.611	0.517	0.000
OCB→OEB	0.072	0.102	0.004
Adjusted R^2		0.311	

4.5.10 Hypothesis 10: OCB Mediates the Relationship between OI and OEB

Beta for direct model (0.737) was increased in the full mediation model (0.091). However there was a negative direction in the interaction between OCB and OEB. Therefore there was a partial mediation effect OCB on the relationship between OI and OEB. A variable may be considered a mediator to the extent that it carries the influence of predictor to criterion variables. Baron and Kenny (1986) indicated that the relation between predictor and criterion should be reduced (to zero in the case of total mediation) after controlling the relationship between the mediator and criterion variables.

Table 4.29: OCB Mediates the Relationship between OI and OEB

Hypothesized Path	β	Beta	SE	CR	P
Direct Model					
OI→OEB	0.389	0.737	0.046	10.279	0.000
Full Mediation Model					
OI→OCB	0.180	0.574	0.054	3.308	0.000
OCB→OEB	-0.588	-0.248	0.256	-2.291	0.022
OI→OEB	0.673	0.905	0.091	7.394	0.000

4.5.11 Hypothesis 11: Structural Equation Modelling Confirms that there are Significant Relationships among OI, OCB, OEB and OC

To test the theoretical hypotheses, structural equation modeling (path analysis) was employed. The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS version 20.0) program was used to develop and test all structural models. SEM is a multivariate technique that defines and estimates dependent and independent relationships between endogenous and exogenous variables simultaneously (Bollen, 1989; Hair et. al, 2006; Ghozali, 2008). It also takes measurement error into consideration, gives parameter estimates based on the maximum likelihood estimation, and provides various indices of the extent to which the proposed covariance structural model fits the data (Ghozali, 2008).

In the present study, path analysis of the hypothesized models was tested (Figure 4.2). In the re-specified model (Figure 4.3), OI and OCB were predictors to OC, along with them OEB as mediators between these two constructs. Indices were used to assess the goodness of fit of the covariance structural models: (1) chi-square, (2) degree of freedom, (3) ratio, (4) P-value, (5) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), (6) Tucker-Lewis index (TFI), (4) goodness of fit index (GFI), and (5) comparative fit index (CFI) (Hair et., al, 2006).

Thus, the null hypothesis is that the sample covariance matrix (S) is equal to the model implied population covariance matrix ($\Sigma\Theta$). However, because the traditional chi-square

test is very sensitive to sample size, researchers (Bollen, 1989; Hair et. al, 2006; Ghozali, 2008) suggest using the RMSEA as the principal goodness-of-fit index. They also suggest that a value of RMSEA of less than .08 indicates a close fit and represent reasonable errors of approximation in the population. The GFI is similar to an R-squared multiple regression coefficient because it represents the proportion of the observed covariance explained by the model-implied covariance (Kline, 1998). The values of GFI, IFI, and CFI can vary between 0 and 1, with values closer to 1 indicating a close fit between data and model (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1995; Hair, et al, 2006; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993).

By using a structural relations model that combines factor analysis, regression analysis and path analysis (Bollen, 1989), this study was able to evaluate the significance and direction of the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous variables. To accomplish these two purposes, a recommended two-step procedure suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was used. First, the measurement models were tested. Then, the researcher evaluated the fit of the models and selected the best model based on the criteria cited above and then proceeded to the second step and examined the significance of the relationships among the endogenous and exogenous variables. The covariance matrix for the observed variables was used as input for all models (Bollen, 1989). All data were normally distributed.

Table 4.30: Final Results in Structural Equation Modeling

Path	β	P	Standardized Error	Remark
OI→OCB	0.574	0.000	0.054	Significant
OI→OEB	0.905	0.000	0.091	Significant
OCB→OEB	-0.248	0.022	0.256	Insignificant
OEB→OC	0.928	0.000	0.131	Significant
SMC				
OCB			32.9%	
OEB			62.3%	
OC			86.1%	

SEM in the present study was divided into two parts: a measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model deals with the relationships between measured variables and latent variables (Hypotheses 1 – 10). The structural model deals with the relationships between latent variables only (Hypothesis 11). One of the advantages to SEM is that latent variables are free of random error. This is because error has been estimated and removed, leaving only a common variance.

A structural equation model has been built in order to confirm the relationship between OI, OCB, OEB and OC (Hypothesis 11 is asserted). The structural model output displayed in Figure 4.4 shows that the model explained a substantial portion of the variance in all the endogenous variables (square multiple correlations). The SMC confirmed the significant OEB (62.3%) and OC (86.1%).

Structural modeling results suggested that the re-specified model fit the data well (see Table 6.12): $\chi^2 = 745.675$, $df = 174$, $\chi^2/df = 4.285$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.884, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.900, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.860, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.885, Root Mean Squared Residual (RMR) = 0.134 and Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .073.

Figure 4.4: Re-Specified Model of the Mediating effect of OEB in the Relationship between OI, OCB to OC of Employees

4.6 Chapter Summary

This study confirmed the examination of the hypothesized model using goodness of fit statistics. In general, models with RMSEA of less than .05 are considered to reflect a good fit and models with RMSEA of between .05 and .08 are considered to have a fair

fit to the data (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). It is further suggested that RMSEA of .08 to 0.10 indicates a mediocre fit and RMSEA of above 0.10 indicates a poor fit of the model to the data (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996).

The significant level of factor loading interaction between all variables in the model confirmed the mediating effect (Hair et. al., 1998) of OEB in the relationship between OI, OCB and OC of employees. Path analysis and hypothesis testing show the total of direct and indirect effect of variables interaction and this indicates the goodness of model fit of the hypothesized model. The results of SEM in assessing the validity or the empirical relationship between OI and OCB were positively related to OC as hypothesized. Through path and direct indirect analysis, OEB was confirmed as the mediating variable in the hypothesized model.

This chapter concludes with a full mediated model to examine the overall relationship of the proposed model.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the findings from the proposed model of OI, OCB, OEB and OI. Firstly, the findings are presented and explained, followed by the contributions and managerial implications of the study. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

The discussion and interpretation of the findings are based on the research objectives and hypotheses of the study. This is discussed below.

5.2.1 Research Objective 1: To identify the dimensions of OI perceived among the employees in the Malaysian hotel industry

Hypothesis 1a: Similarity is a Dimension of OI

Hypothesis 1b: Membership is a Dimension of OI

The OI Questionnaire (Cheney, 1982; Patchen, 1970) was used in exploring the dimensions among the employees in the Malaysian hotel industry. The sections in the

questionnaire namely membership, loyalty and similarity were validated by the exploratory factor analysis with VARIMAX rotation in which two dimensions, membership and similarity were produced for OI. CFA was also performed on each of the dimensions to validate the OI characteristics considered among the employees.

5.2.2 Research Objective 2: To identify the dimensions of OCB perceived among the employees in the Malaysian hotel industry

Hypothesis 2a: Courtesy is a Dimension of OCB

Hypothesis 2b: Altruism is a Dimension of OCB

Hypothesis 2c: Civic Virtue is a Dimension of OCB

Hypothesis 2d: Sportsmanship is a Dimension of OCB

OCB was measured using the Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale (hereinafter OCBS) developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). The dimensions in OCBS namely altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue were then validated by the exploratory factor analysis with VARIMAX rotation in which four dimensions, altruism, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue were produced for OCB. CFA was also performed on each of the dimensions to validate the OCB characteristics viewed among the employees.

5.2.3 Research Objective 3: To identify the dimensions of OEB perceived among the employees in Malaysian hotel industry

Hypothesis 3a: Brand Awareness is a Dimension of OEB

Hypothesis 3b: Brand Value is a Dimension of OEB

OEB was measured using the scale developed and operationalized based on the established brand equity typologies namely: Brand Awareness [(Motameni & Shahrokhi, 1998), Oh (2000), Arnett et al. (2003), Kaplanidou & Vogt (2003), Berry (2000)], Brand Image (Lassar et al. (1995), Sirgy et al. (1997), Grace and O'Cass (2005)], Brand Quality (Aaker, 1991), Sweeney and Soutar (2001), Lassar et al. (1995)], Brand Loyalty [(Baloglu (2002), Back & Parks (2003), Aaker (1991), Odin et al. (2001), Arnett et al. (2003), Belen del Rio et al. (2001), Belen del Rio et al. (2001), Narayandas (1999)], Brand Value [(Aaker (1996), Sirgy et al. (1997), Murphy et al. (2000), Sweeney & Soutar (2001), Odin et al. (2001), Arnett et al. (2003)] and Brand Meaning (Berry, 2000).

The dimensions in OEB namely Brand Awareness, Brand Image, Brand Quality, Brand Loyalty, Brand Value and Brand Meaning were then validated by using the exploratory factor analysis with VARIMAX rotation in which two dimensions, Brand Awareness and Brand Value were produced for OEB. Also, CFA was performed on each of the dimensions to validate the OEB characteristics observed among the employees.

5.2.4 Research Objective 4: To identify the dimensions of OC perceived among the employees in Malaysian hotel industry

Hypothesis 4a: Affective is a Dimension of OC

Hypothesis 4b: Normative is a Dimension of OC

OC was measured using the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The dimensions in OCC namely normative, affective and continuance were then validated by using the exploratory factor analysis with VARIMAX rotation in which two dimensions, normative and affective were produced for OC. Also, CFA was performed on each of the dimensions to validate the OC characteristics concerned among the employees.

5.2.5 Research Objective 5: To examine the relationship between OI and OCB

Hypothesis 5: OI Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OCB

The overall results show that OI is significantly related to OCB.

5.2.6 Research Objective 6: To examine the relationship between OI and OEB

Hypothesis 6: OI Has a Significant Positive Relationship on OEB

The overall results show that OI is significantly related to OEB.

5.2.7 Research Objective 7: To examine the relationship between OCB and OEB

Hypothesis 7: OCB Has a Significant Relationship on OEB

The overall results show that OCB is not significantly related to OEB. The direction of this relationship is in the opposite direction.

5.2.8 Research Objective 8: To examine the relationship between OEB and OC

Hypothesis 8: OEB has a Significant Positive Relationship on OC

The overall results show that OEB is significantly related to OC.

5.2.9 Research Objective 9: To examine the relationships between OI and OCB with OEB

Hypothesis 9: There are Relationships between OI and OCB with OEB

The overall results show that there is significant relationship between OI, OCB and OEB.

5.2.10 Research Objective 10: To examine the mediating effect of OCB in the relationship between OI and OEB

Hypothesis 10: OCB Mediates the Relationship between OI and OEB

The results indicate that OCB mediated the effect of OI on OEB.

5.2.11 Research Objective 11: To propose an integrated model linking OI, OCB, OEB and OC

Hypothesis 11: Structural Equation Modelling Confirms that there are Significant Relationships among OI, OCB, OEB and OC

The integrated model of this study demonstrates the comprehensive relationship of the variables that incorporates the predictor of OEB, the mediating role and the outcome variable in a single model. Since most of these relationships have not been studied before, testing all variables as an integrated model provides additional information on OEB context. In general, the findings suggest that OC and OCB contribute to OEB and simultaneously provide a significant impact on OC among employees in the Malaysian.

5.3 Contribution of the Study

The contributions of this study are significant in terms of theoretical, methodological and implications to managers. These contributions are discussed below.

5.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

Firstly, this study contributes by proposing OI and OCB as the determinants to OEB. The rationale is that when employees perceive of belongingness to or oneness with a particular organization that results in an individual defining him- or herself in terms of that organization, their OEB will be enhanced. Therefore, it highlights the notion that employee OEB is likely to be influenced by OI and OCB.

Secondly, this study contributes to the literature in terms of examining OEB as the predictor of OC. By analyzing the dimensions of OEB, this study has given a significant contribution because no past research has examined the effect of OEB to OC.

5.3.2 Methodological Contributions

The methodological contribution of this study is the development of the measurement for OEB. To date, no empirical evidence and no previous studies have developed a measurement for OEB in the employer brand equity literature. Previous studies measured brand equity only on product (Motameni & Shahrokhi, 1998), (Lassar et al., 1995), (Aaker, 1991), (Baloglu, (2002) and (Berry, 2000). Thus, this study adopted the brand equity used for product or services to be used in assessing the employer brand equity that leads to OEB.

5.3.3 Managerial Implications

The main implication of this study focuses on the influence of OI and OCB on OEB to OC. Employees with membership OI have a sense of belonging, strong feeling of attachment or emotional attraction, reference to self in organizational membership and

pride in organizational membership. Employees with similarity OI have perceptions of shared characteristics and with respect to shared value or goals.

Altruism, or helping behavior OCB is a behavior that involves voluntarily helping others with an organizationally relevant task or problem, such as helping others who have heavy workloads. Sportsmanship OCB is a behavior that reflects the employee's willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining, for example not wasting time complaining about trivialities. Courtesy (good manners) OCB is a behavior that is aimed at preventing work-related problems with others, such as not abusing the rights of others. Civic virtue OCB reflects responsive, constructive involvement in the organization, for instance keeping abreast of changes at the organization.

Affective OC is the magnitude of the member's psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of how favorable he or she feels about the organization. Normative commitment is primarily based on the individual's sense of moral requirement to the organization. It is also as the degree of the member's psychological attachment to the organization on the basis of a perceived moral obligation to keep up a current bond with it. These are consistent with Allen and Meyer (1990), and Gruen, Summers and Acito (2000).

Retaining qualified employees is becoming a concern. Keeping employees starts with commitment. If an employee's identity and commitment to the organization can be increased from the first day on the job, then they might be less likely to leave. The messages the company is sending through its internal newsletter and other internal communication venues can be persuasive. The company needs to persuade employees to buy into the company's organizational culture, which links to OI, OCB and OC. This is in line with Branham (2005).

It is important to note that the likelihood of staying at an organization is a variable that an organization can address. An organization may be able to design messages that can influence employees to see benefits of service longevity at any one organization.

Employees will develop affective commitment if an organization satisfies their needs, meets their expectations and allow them to achieve their goals. The employees form this type of normative commitment are developed through a process of rewards, punishments and observations. Furthermore, if employees are making more income, work in teams and feel like the organization boosts their morale, they will feel an obligation to the organization. If the employees feel they are lacking information from the organization, they will feel less obligated to the organization. This is in accordance with Allen and Meyer (1996).

Previous researches have suggested many factors which play essential role in employee retention. Some of the factors which are considered to have direct effect on this issue are employee loyalty or commitment, career development opportunities, work environment or organizational culture, work-life balance policies, and compensation and rewards (Abdullah et al., 2012; Fox, 2012; Shoaib, Noor & Bashir, 2009).

In conclusion, the research framework used in this study provides hotel managers in Malaysia a useful way of understanding their employees' behaviors. These will assist them in making more efficient decisions in their future choices of employees and employees programs.

5.3.3.1 Employee Loyalty or Commitment

In order to retain employees, employers need to believe that the best possible investment is in their employees. Nowadays, employee loyalty is very important for the

organization to improve their organization quality and productivity. Given today of employees' loyalty decreasing towards the organization, many organizations are trying to find some ways to increase the employee loyalty.

There are three type of commitment. First is affective; the employee emotional attachment, identification and involvement with the organization. Second is normative; the feeling of obligation towards the organization. And the third one is continuance; the awareness of the cost associated with leaving the organization. By recognizing the employees' type of commitment, employers might come out with the right way in tackling their employees. These are in relation to Meyer and Allen (1991). Commitment cannot be generated in overnight. Employees must stay at a considerable length of time in organization then only commitment will start generating in their mind. Tenure had a significant effect on several of the component scores for satisfaction. Further, satisfaction with policies, career development, compensation, work conditions, and advancement were found to have a significant relationship to organizational commitment. Thus, once the employees believes and has developed trust towards an organization, the employee might stay at the organization for a longer time of period. These are in keeping with Sharma and Bajpai (2010), and Feinstein (2002).

5.3.3.2 Career Development Opportunities

Career development is the lifelong process of managing progression in learning and work. The quality of this process significantly determines the nature and quality of individuals' lives: the kind of people they become, the sense of purpose they have, the income at their disposal. It also determines the social and economic contribution they make to the communities and societies of which they are part. Career development is the most important determinant of employee loyalty. The career development is a system which is organized, formalized and it is a planned effort of achieving a balance

between the individual career needs and the organization's workforce requirements. Career development means an individual will find a place in an organization where they can express excellence and contribute to the goals of the organization as well as achieve respected position in which could advance their career such as promotions and upward mobility. These are in relation to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2004), Mehta, Singh, Bhakar and Sinha (2010), Shoaib et al. (2009) and Mehta et al. (2010),

The career development consists of concerted efforts directed towards assessing workers' performance identifying likely career paths for that employee, designing and implementing different forms of training and experience to prepare that person for more advanced job. Career development is important to retain employee because the availability of skill development opportunities and career movement are "key attractors" of organizations. If an organization does not recognize the individual needs and desire to grow, then "development" becomes a primary reason for resignation. This shows that career development is one of the crucial opportunities that are aimed by employees and an attractive career opportunity may lead to the employees' retention at an organization. These are in proportion to Mehta et al. (2010) and Kreisman (2002).

5.3.3.3 Work Environment

To retain employees and keep them motivated, employers must create a positive work environment and give employees opportunities to grow. Work environment is one of the factors that affect employee's decision to stay with the organization. Work environment has commonly been discussed by industrial perspective which is with a focus on physical aspects such as, heavy lifts, noise, exposure to toxic substances and others. The interesting part is; characteristics of work environment vary in services sector as

compare to production sector because it has to interact with the customers or consumers. It shows that in the hospitality industry, work environment can be one of the factors that affect the employees' retention at an organization. These are in keeping with Zeytinoglu and Denton (2005), Hytter and Fagerlund (2008) and Norman (1986).

Employees get benefited by work environment that provides sense of belonging. Firms with generous personalization policies may have better chance to satisfy and retain employees by providing appropriate level of privacy and sound control on workspace which enhances the motivation levels to commit with the organization for the long term. The focus of organizations must be on how to provide better jobs with great work environment to retain employees. These are consistent with Levi (2002), Erickson and Yust (2001), and Wells and Thelen (2002).

Different generations evaluate risk in a different way and prioritize the value of work environment differently. People belonging to a generation not only exist in the same time in history but also share and perceived the same experience, forming value set in a formative phase early in life that remain with the people from that generation for the rest of their life. These values sets also influence work values and expectation that people may have of their employers. Therefore, employers should also consider on the generation differences (Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y) needs in preparing for the suitable work environment. This is in line with Lub, Bijvank, Bal, Blomme, and Schalk (2012), and Earle (2003).

5.3.3.4 Work-Life Balance Policies

Employees endowed with value and importance for work-life initiatives. Innovative working time and work-life balance policies can lead to a variety of positive impacts at company level, including better recruitment and retention potential. Factors shown to

impact the most upon employee trying to balance work and life include required hours of work, a lack of flexibility in being able to alter their working hours, time off or leave arrangements, a lack of access to suitable childcare arrangements, and undue stresses and tensions in the workplace which make working life more difficult and/or even unpleasant. These are in accordance with McCrory (1999), The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2006) and Department of Health (2006).

A major concern in business today is workplace flexibility. Loyal employees who imagine in switching job in the inevitable upcoming are more fretful with the flexible work schedules, family friendliness, leave and immediacy to their home as compare to the employees who are energetically searching for a new employment. Employees are willing to trade a certain amount of money for reduced work hours in their schedules, this clearly shows that money alone is not enough for them to have a balance life. Reduced work hour options should have the potential of win-win situation for both individuals and organizations and there should be a fit between the schedule the person needs and the actual number of hours worked. Distress and fatigue from excessive time on job can lead to decline in performances of the employee and eventually will affect the safety level. These are in relation to Dubie (2000) and Shoaib et al. (2009).

There is a greater organizational commitment if employees have access to work life policies and also these employees are believed to have lower intent in leaving their profession Therefore, employees who are able to balance their work, family and life commitments would be happier in their job and are more likely to stay and work towards a rewarding and productive career These are in keeping with Grover and Crooker (1995), and Department of Health (2006).

5.3.3.5 Compensation and Rewards

Compensation is which including that are something, typically money, awarded to someone as a compensation for injury, loss or suffering, money received by an employee from an employer as a salary or wages, or do/give something to somebody in return. Compensation is not only in the form of money, but also in non-cash form. Benefits, such as pension, life and health insurance, and retirement plans, and allowances that include company cars or subsidized transportation, represent a significant pay element in many large firms. On the other hand, rewards given to employees could be in the form of commissions and bonus or employees been promoted and there could be some non-monetary rewards such as additional time off, employees' appreciation certificate or gifts for encouragement and to make them feel that they are appreciated for working hard for the organization. Adding to that, rewards can be given based on the employees' loyalty and length of service in the organization. These are consistent with Hong, Hao, Kumar, Ramendran and Kadlresan (2012).

Reward is very important to enhance the employees' loyalty and job satisfaction because it fulfills the basic needs as well as helps to attain the higher level of goals. Compensation clearly shows a relation between the rewards of an organization offers and those individuals that attracted by the compensation to work in the firm, and those employees who willing to continue to work for the business. The strategy for attracting and retaining employees consists in crafting the ultimate compensation and benefits package; along with instituting an employee appreciation and recognition program. Employees usually depend on wages, salaries, and so forth to provide a large share of their income and on benefits to provide income and health security. For employers, compensation decisions influence their cost of doing a business, their ability to sell at a competitive price in the product market. Thus, the compensation decisions will

influence the employer's ability to compete for employees in the labor market, as well as their attitudes and behaviors while with the employer. These are in line with Steers and Porter (1991), Lee (2000), and Gerhart and Rynes (1991),

5.4 Limitations and Suggestion for Future Research

The findings of this study are interpreted in the light of several limitations and together with the findings, suggest directions for future research.

Firstly, the generalizability of this study's findings may be limited to the star rating of the hotels, namely, 3-star, 4-star and 5-star hotels only. Therefore, future research should attempt to gather more information from the hotels regardless of their star ratings. In this way, comparison between different hotels with different star ratings can be obtained.

Secondly, the findings may be limited to hotel business only. For that reason, future research should attempt to gather information from other businesses in the service industry like the airlines, restaurants, banks, and hospitals. Subsequently, comparison between the different businesses in the service industry can be acquired.

Thirdly, the level of analysis of this study is on the variable or constructs level. For that reason, future research should attempt to analyze on the dimensions level where the relationships between different dimensions of OI, OCB, OEB and OC can be gauged.

Finally, the limitation of this study is that it used only selected variables i.e., OI and OCB. There are other variables that could be interesting to be studied in future research in order to examine the antecedents of OEB. Variables such as organizational culture, knowledge, work experience or gender should be examined in detail.

5.5 Conclusion

In sum, this study examines the relationship among OI, OCB, OEB and OC of the employees in Malaysian hotels. Although the findings of the study indicates that OI and OCB play an important role in OEB of the employees as well as the impact on OC, learning more about the conditions under which employees are engaged in while working would help the hotel management to plan accordingly with their practice. As such, the findings have drawn attention to the need for a more comprehensive model of OEB.

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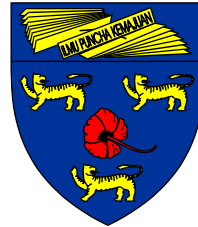
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APPENDICES

Appendix A:



FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND ACCOUNTANCY UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA A Survey on:

Measuring Organizational Commitment through Its Relationship with Organizational Identity, Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Organizational Employer Branding

1. Please be assured that any information you provided in this questionnaire is **STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**
2. Please **answer all questions**. The objective of this survey is to discover the important dimensions that contribute to understanding of the employer branding influence on the employee's performance amongst the hotels in Malaysia.
3. If you have any questions or comments about this questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me, Hashim Fadzil Ariffin at 012-3856140 or hashim@salam.uitm.edu.my or Dr Norbani Che Ha at norbanicheha@um.edu.my.
4. Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

Part 1 : Organizational Identity

Think of your role as an employee of this organization. For each item below, select the answer that best represents your belief about or attitude toward the organization. The scales are to be interpreted as:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=slightly disagree; 4=neutral; 5=slightly agree; 6=agree; 7=strongly agree.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I would continue working for this organization even if I did not need the money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	In general, the people employed by this organization are working toward the same goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I am very proud to be an employee of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	This organization's image in the community represents me as well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I often describe myself to others by saying "I work for this organization" or "I am from this organization".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I try to make on-the-job decisions by considering the consequences of my actions for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	We at this organization are different from others in our field.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I am glad I choose to work for this organization rather than other company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I talk up this organization to my friend as a great company to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	In general, I view the organization's problems as my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help the organization be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I become irritated when I hear other outside the organization criticize the company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Slightly Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Slightly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>
14.	I would be quite willing to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I feel that this organization cares about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I have a lot in common with others employed by this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I find it difficult to agree with the organization's policies on important matters relating to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	My association with this organization is only a small part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I like to tell others about projects that the organization is working on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I find that my values and the values of the organization are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I would describe this organization as a large family in which most members feel a sense of belonging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I find it easy to identify with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

rt 2 : Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Think of your role as an employee of this organization. For each item below, select the answer that best represents your belief about the actions of being an employee here. If you have had other jobs, think of how you acted at those jobs. The scales are to be interpreted as:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=slightly disagree; 4=neutral; 5=slightly agree; 6=agree; 7=strongly agree.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I help others who have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I assist my supervisor with his/her work when not asked.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I take time to listen to co-worker's problem and worries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I go out of my way to help new employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I take a personal interest in other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I pass along information to co-worker.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	My attendance at work is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I give advance notice when unable to come to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I take undeserved work breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I spend a great deal of time on personal phone conversation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I complain about insignificant things at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I conserve and protect organization property.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I adhere to informal rules devised to maintain order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I complete assigned duties adequately.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I fulfill responsibilities specified in my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I perform tasks that are expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
18.	I meet formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I neglect aspects of the job that are my responsibility to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I fail to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I help others who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I help others who have been absent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I willingly help others who have work-related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I help orient new people even though it is not required.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I am a very conscientious employee.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	My attendance is above the norm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I do not take extra breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I am the classic squeaky wheel that always needs greasing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I tend to make mountains out of molehills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I always find fault with what the organization is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	I try to avoid creating problems with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
38.	I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	I do not abuse the rights of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	I take steps to try preventing problems with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos and so on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3 : Organizational Brand Equity

For each item below, select the answer that best represents your belief about your association, awareness, quality, loyalty and value of being an employee here. The scales are to be interpreted as:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=slightly disagree; 4=neutral; 5=slightly agree; 6=agree; 7=strongly agree.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	This company is very familiar to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	This company has a good name and reputation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	The characteristics of this company come to my mind quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	When I am thinking about good company, this company comes to my mind quickly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	This company fits my personality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I would be proud to work in this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	My friends would think highly of me if I worked in this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	The image of this company is consistent with my own self-image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Working in this company reflects who I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	People similar to me work in this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	This company has high quality offerings (financial and non-financial benefits)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	This company provides offerings of consistent quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	This company provides quality experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	From this company's offerings, I can expect superior benefits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	This company provides better offerings than other similar companies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I am emotionally attached to this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I enjoy working in this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
18.	This company would be my preferred choice to work with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Overall, I am loyal to this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I would advise other people to work with this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	If the benefits of working in this company decreased, I would not be willing to work for them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	This company has a good name and reputation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Working in this company is economical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	This company has a reasonable benefits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Even if another company is identical to the quality of work of this company, I would prefer the name of this company to the other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	The name of this company is more attractive to me than a name of companies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	The name of this company implies something superior to other companies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	If another company has the same quality offerings (financial and non-financial) as this company, it is smarter to choose this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	The name of this company may be the primary reason to work here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	If I were given a choice between this company and another company that seems identical with the quality offerings (financial and non-financial), I would select this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4 : Organization Commitment

Think of your role as an employee of this organization. For each item below, select the answer that best represents your commitment toward the organization. The scales are to be interpreted as:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=slightly disagree; 4=neutral; 5=slightly agree; 6=agree; 7=strongly agree.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I feel like part of the family at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I feel emotionally attached to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Jumping from organization to organization is unethical to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
14.	I was thought to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company women” is sensible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I feel obligated to remain with my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	This organization deserves my loyalty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I owe a great deal to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Not much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	I would be too costly for me to leave my organization right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Right now staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
29.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefit that I have here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 5 : Respondents Profile

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Age: ☐ 21 -25 ☐ 26 - 30
☐ 31 - 35 ☐ 36 - 40
☐ Above 40

3. Ethnic Group: ☐ Malay ☐ Chinese
☐ Indian ☐ Others _____

4. Education Level: ☐ High School ☐ Diploma
☐ Bachelor's degree ☐ Others
☐ Post graduate

5. Monthly Income ☐ RM 1,500 - RM 2,999 ☐ RM 3,000 - RM 4,999
☐ RM 5,000 - RM 6,999 ☐ Above RM 7,000

6. Do you have any comments or suggestions?
